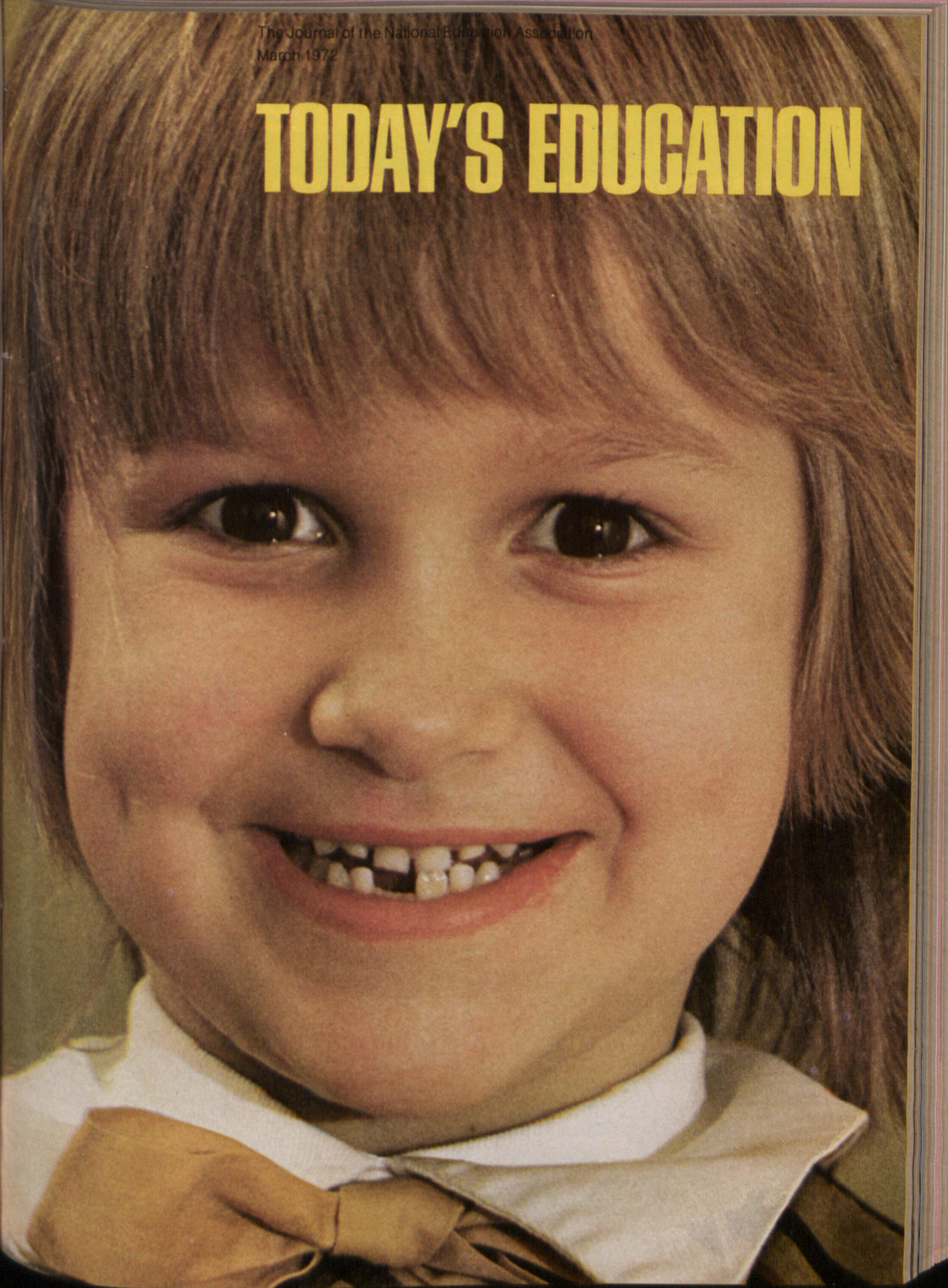
The Journal of the National Education Association
March 1972

TODAY'S EDUCATION



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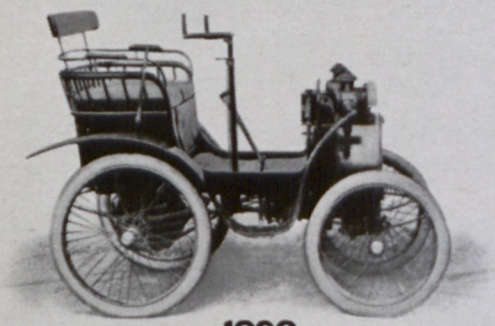

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Published monthly except June, July, and August by the National Education Association of the United States, 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, DC 20036. Telephone: Area Code 202, 833-4000. TODAY'S EDUCATION® goes to all members of the Association. Annual subscription price $1.05 (included in membership dues and available only as a part of membership). Single copies 80¢ each. Second-class postage paid at Washington, DC, and at additional mailing offices. Copyright © 1972 by the National Education Association of the United States. All rights reserved.
POSTMASTER: PLEASE SEND POD FORM 3579 (CHANGE OF ADDRESS) TO NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, 1201 16th ST., N.W., WASHINGTON, DC 20036.

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A look at educational research, with an updated list of the 10 most significant educational research findings in recent years

ZIP CODE 20036

The ideas and opinions expressed in this monthly feature are those of the writers and not necessarily of the NEA. ZIP Code 20036 is primarily a forum for NEA members. Therefore if you are currently a member, please paste the mailing label from one of your recent copies of Today's Education *at the top of your ZIP Code letter. Please also indicate your school, position, and home address.*

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Smoking in Schools

"No Smoking on School Property" by Robert W. Cornell (January) is great. If *all* schools banned smoking, there would be little complaining or urgent requests to change the policy. But how can we bring this about? Any ideas, Mr. Cornell or *Journal* editors?

—Autumn Schlehuber, *teacher, District 418, McPherson, Kansas.*

Robert Cornell's article represents a limited view. Before developing a smoking policy, schools must give serious consideration to the fact that many students already have a fixed smoking habit by the time they get to high school.

Our school has designated a courtyard as the only authorized smoking area. This was done after several years of struggling with the problem of students' sneaking off to lavatories and other concealed locations to smoke in violation of the no-smoking rule.

The school's responsibility should be to continue a firm antismoking educational program while caring for all students, smokers and nonsmokers.

—George Pavlakis, *aerospace education instructor, Air Force Junior ROTC, Oxon Hill (Maryland) Senior High School.*

Amen, to Robert Cornell's "No Smoking" article. If we can't educate ourselves on something as important as this, how can we educate children?

—B. C. Matchett, *Whiteriver, Arizona.*

May we have permission to reprint Mr. Cornell's article in *Timber*, our high school paper? Our school has been having a problem with high school students wanting to know why they can't smoke at school.

—Kris Woodbury, *assistant editor, St. Maries (Idaho) High School.*

◆ *Editor's note: We are pleased to grant permission. Let us know, Kris, what response you get from students.*

Thank you for publishing the article. We are delighted to have David challenge Goliath. May another miracle occur!

—Mr. and Mrs. Robert E. Snyder, *Redlands, California.*

Robert Cornell has my vote: "No smoking on school property" would undercut the students' argument: "If teachers can smoke, why can't we?"

The nonsmoker always leaves the teachers' lounge knowing that a smoky aroma has taken temporary residence in his clothing, and he feels like a walking smokestack. The students readily note this.

(*Continued on page 5*)

NEWS AND TRENDS

Nixon Promises Recommendations On Financing the Schools

President Richard M. Nixon, in his January State of the Union address, told the nation that recommendations on educational finance will be forthcoming later this year when two commissions complete their studies. Describing the reform of school financing as a pressing need, the President promised that recommendations would be made for "relieving the burden of property taxes and providing both fair and adequate financing for our children's education."

NEA President Donald Morrison said he hopes that the findings of the two commissions studying the problem will result in "sound Administration proposals to resolve this critical problem." Morrison cautioned that any legislation addressed to the property tax burden must ensure continued and greatly expanded federal assistance to public education. "An affluent society which demands equal access to good education must be willing to pay for it," he said, "but the tax system must be fair and based on the ability of the taxpayers to pay without undue hardship on any one group."

Morrison also said that the Nixon Administration education budget proposals for fiscal year 1973 are "a wholly inadequate response" to the pressing needs of the schools. "Despite overwhelming evidence of a growing fiscal crisis in urban and rural school systems, the Administration offers rhetoric, not real assistance," he said.

Earth Week Set For April 17-23

Sen. Gaylord Nelson (D-Wis.) has reported that 20 governors have announced that they will proclaim April 17-23 Earth Week this year. Senator Nelson also said that some 69 senators and 100 representatives have cosponsored his Earth Week resolution in Congress.

Observance of the event started with Nelson's idea of an Earth Day for April 1970—which was backed by the United Teaching Profession—and with an entire week last spring devoted to environmental education activities.

California Passes Parochiaid; Court Challenges Continue

California has become the latest state to attempt to aid financially ailing parochial schools. A new parochiaid law will allow nonpublic school children to use state-purchased textbooks and to attend public high school science and vocational education classes on a space-available basis.

According to the NEA Research Division, 10 states in all during 1971 enacted parochiaid laws of one type or another. Most of the programs these new laws subsidize are now being challenged on constitutional grounds in either state or federal courts, among them: tuition grants in Illinois and Pennsylvania; tax credits in Minnesota; textbooks in Nebraska; and state aid to reimburse local public school districts in Vermont for "lending" teachers, textbooks, and other educational materials in certain subjects to parochial schools.

In June 1971, the Supreme Court of the United States in the Lemon and DiCenso decisions struck down state laws for the purchase of secular services from parochial schools and the payment with public funds of salary supplements to parochial school teachers. Private schools in Connecticut

have been told to return the $1.6 million the state gave them under a law that fell with these decisions.

Former President Johnson Opens Education Documents to Public

In late January, former President Lyndon B. Johnson opened some 250,000 education-related papers for use by scholars and the public in his Presidential library. The papers are the first in the library to be opened to the public and will be followed later by documents on other subjects. The education papers included material relating to the more than 50 education measures passed during the Johnson Presidency.

NEA President Donald E. Morrison, Executive Secretary Sam M. Lambert, and other NEA officials attended the opening of the documents and took part in a two-day symposium which preceded the opening of the Johnson library. Morrison introduced U.S. Commissioner of Education Sidney P. Marland, Jr., at a luncheon session.

Broadcasters Vote Less Time for Commercials on Children's TV

The National Association of Broadcasters has voted to cut by 25 percent the amount of time given to commercials during children's weekend TV shows. Commercial and other nonprogram material on these programs will be cut from 16 to 12 minutes in an hour of broadcasting, effective January 1, 1973. NAB also ruled that the hosts of children's shows and the major cartoon characters in them could not deliver commercial messages.

The Federal Communications Commission declined comment on the NAB ruling but said it would continue its probe of children's TV programming. Action for Children's Television, a citizens' group that has sought a total ban of commercials during children's TV shows, labeled the NAB action "a meager step."

Most College Freshmen Say They Will Vote

Three-fourths of the nation's 1,634,000 college freshmen say they plan to vote in the 1972 Presidential election, according to the sixth annual survey of first-time, full-time freshmen conducted by the American Council on Education. Researchers said over 90 percent of the freshmen are in the 18-20 age range and therefore eligible to vote under the Twenty-Sixth Amendment.

Over Million Enrolled Under GI Bill

The U.S. Veterans Administration reports that at the end of October 1971, 1,043,000 veterans and servicemen were enrolled in college, high school, and on-the-job training programs. This number exceeds the previous October enrollment peak reached in October 1951.

Continuing Education Programs for Women Seen Mushrooming

The Women's Bureau of the U.S. Department of Labor says that continuing education programs designed especially for women are greatly increasing. The Bureau reports that almost 450 such programs are now listed by colleges, universities, and other organizations, compared with only 250 programs listed three years ago.

NEA Reporter Gives Association News

For news and trends in local, state, and national education associations, see current issues of the NEA Reporter. Members in some unified states receive Reporter news through joint NEA-state association newspapers.

ZIP . . . (*Continued from page 2*)

scent and conclude, "He's had his drag for this period."

Teachers should set an example. We all know the disastrous effects of prolonged smoking.

—Norma E. Mooney, *teacher, Wilson High School, Easton, Pennsylvania.*

As a nonsmoker, I never could go along with the idea of letting visitors, administrators, teachers, and custodians use practically any part of a school building for their smoking. This laissez faire attitude permeated our professional ranks when traditional attitudes and values were being junked in exchange for a "humanization" of our profession. But this "humanitarian devotion" actually deprives students and other nonsmokers of their right to breathe unpolluted air and to wear clothing that has not been saturated with smoke.

—George Hlavinka, *fifth grade teacher, Park School, Lincoln, Nebraska.*

After many attempts, I finally stopped smoking five years ago. I can sympathize with the hooked smoker's great need for a cigarette. However, the nonsmoker must also be considered. I, too, have a right to relax and eat my lunch in the lounge or lunchroom without breathing in irritating smoke which now makes me quite ill.

Why should a nonsmoking policy apply only to students? We teach the hazards of smoking; we punish students when they smoke in the building, and then, we allow teachers, administrators, and visitors to smoke in that building. What hypocrisy! I look forward to the day when smoking will be banned in schools.

—Miriam Ring, *seventh and eighth grade English teacher, Selzer School, Dumont, New Jersey.*

Hallelujah! Someone is finally speaking up for the nonsmoker, who seldom is left a choice about whether he wishes to inhale someone else's smoke. For years I've requested a nonsmoker's section on airplanes and the 747's now have one. I've started doing the same at restaurants. Sure, I get some dirty looks, but I'm sick of getting sick from smoke (I'm allergic).

P.S. Conventions do me in for days.

—Franklin Matula, *Education Service Center Region XII, Waco, Texas.*

◆ *Editor's Note: Support for action to give relief to nonsmokers can be found in the 1972 report on the* Health Consequences of Smoking *issued in January by HEW Secretary Elliot L. Richardson. The report states: "It is clear that . . . exposure [to tobacco smoke] can contribute to the discomfort of the nonsmoking individual and produce exacerbation of allergic symptoms in those who are suffering from allergies of various other causes. There is ample proof that those who complain of discomfort in smoke-filled rooms are not disagreeable malcontents, but can have a legitimate cause for their complaint."*

As long as society permits smoking in most public places, the school cannot rationally and practically prevent it. Where smoking is banned, it becomes an issue and an instrument of protest and disobedience rather than an issue of health and well-being.

Wouldn't it be more reasonable for schools to have supervised smoking areas out in the open? If a school had such an area, the bulk of the teen-age population, rather than admiring the "tough" smoking element, might exert peer pressure against smoking; many teens agree it is a health problem.

—Judith Rodden, *English teacher, Andover High School, Linthicum Heights, Maryland.*

Nearly everyone who smokes would like to break the habit. His resolution to quit is thwarted by associating with other smokers. If smoking were banned on

(*Continued on page 8*)

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3. **The Open Classroom: Promise and Problems** *by Professor Vito Perrone, University of North Dakota*
4. **Performance Contracting: Who Profits Most?** *by Charles Blaschke, President of Education Turnkey Systems*
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CW-26	☐ Los Angeles-Amsterdam-Los Angeles	Jun 23	Sep 9	$304
CW-27	☐ Los Angeles-Madrid/Amsterdam-Los Angeles	Jun 27	Jul 28	$314
CW-28	☐ Los Angeles-Frankfurt-Los Angeles	Jun 30	Aug 11	$316
CW-29	☐ Los Angeles-Amsterdam-Los Angeles	Jul 1	Aug 26	$304
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school premises, a teacher's battle would be nearly won.

—Edna B. Berg, *librarian, Bozeman (Montana) Senior High School.*

Killing Individuality

Margaret Greer stated her case well in "How To Kill Individuality: Two Viewpoints" (December). She concluded with an intelligent attitude: "Acceptance is a form of reinforcement that says to the child: 'What you say and do is important. Therefore, *you* are important.'"

Professors Langenbach and Wiggins also made clear their point, but it seems sad that they could conclude: "Although teachers and principals frequently talk about programs that foster individuality and promote human development, one is hard-pressed to find the empirical evidence." Their article belittles both teachers and principals without providing any constructive suggestions.

—Pamela Quale, *teacher, J. W. Oakley School, Brawley, California.*

Open Classrooms

"The Open Classroom" (December) was greatly appreciated by the staff at Springbrook Elementary School. We share Mr. Resnik's biases because we have a successful open-concept school. In fact, there are many such schools in the Puget Sound area.

We feel this type of article is needed to give the public a better understanding of the open classroom. However, noting that most of the schools discussed were on the East Coast or in the Midwest, we wish that some open-concept schools on the West Coast had been included.

—Tom Bettis, *principal, Springbrook Elementary School, Kent, Washington.*

Sex Discrimination

Today's Education has finally ceased ignoring one of the most crucial issues of our time—the changing role of women. "Sex Discrimination in Schools" (November) and "Discrimination Against the Pregnant Teacher" (December) were extremely pertinent.

Since the majority of teachers are women, our national magazine should keep the subject of equal rights in the forefront of the educational scene. Women interested in administrative positions need practical help from NEA in achieving equality of job opportunity, a tenet which our national organization purports to espouse.

—Mary Blanche Jordan, *Cooperative Work Training coordinator, Alton (Illinois) Senior High School.*

What's Happened to Teachers?

◆ *Responses to Mary Belfield's letter in the December "ZIP Code 20036" continue to arrive. Those that follow are representative:*

Self-respect is what's happened to teachers. A "professional attitude, devotion to children, and stick-to-the-job outlook" doesn't get a teacher's own kids through college. It doesn't do much toward paying the mortgage or the grocery bill, either.

Teachers have at long last joined the ranks of those who will not accept what is handed out, but rather demand what is their just due.

—Gael Gibney, *fourth grade teacher, Unified District 46, Elgin, Illinois.*

Teachers have gone a long way toward losing public respect by their grasping, "me first" attitude. Teachers and many teachers organizations seem to have forgotten that we are supposed to be educating students for citizenship and work in a republic. Negotiations have fostered an adversary relationship which has lost sight of what education is all about—children. Is it any wonder that taxpayers turn down school bond issues?

—Larry J. Hendricks, Sr., *Alaska State-Operated Schools, Glennallen, Alaska.*

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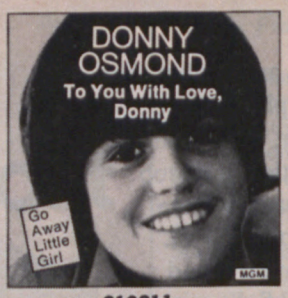

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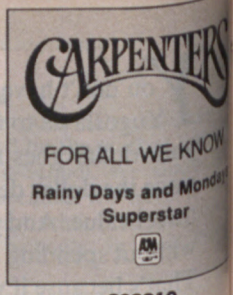

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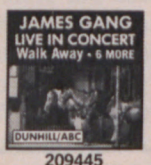

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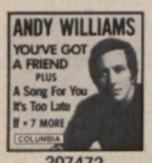

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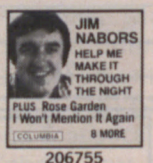

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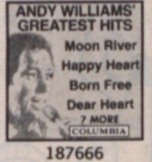

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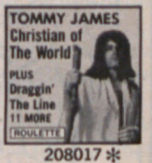

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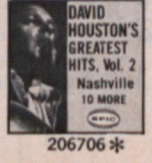

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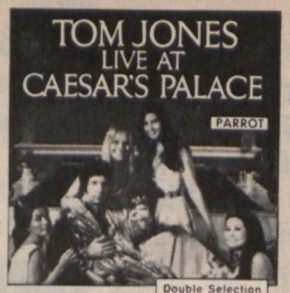

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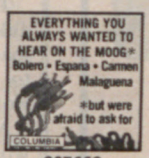

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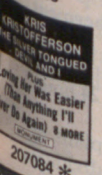

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CONCON

This past summer 484 delegates from NEA Affiliates met in Fort Collins, Colorado, to create a constitution for your consideration as part of the constitutional convention process which NEA is currently using to reassess the structure under which it operates. Con Con reconvenes March 24-29 in Minneapolis to consider the suggestions from the membership as it prepares the final draft of the proposed constitution. That document may be amended by the 1972 Representative Assembly meeting in Atlantic City. After approval by the Representative Assembly, the document will be submitted to the membership as of May 31, 1972, for ratification. For further developments, read the *NEA Reporter*.

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TEACHER OPINION POLL

Censoring School Publications

Nearly two-thirds of the nation's public school teachers believe that school personnel should have the authority to censor articles in school-sponsored student publications.

This finding is the result of a recent Teacher Opinion Poll that asked a nationwide sample of public school classroom teachers the following question: "In your opinion, should school personnel have the authority to censor articles appearing in school-sponsored publications?"

A substantial majority of respondents (64 percent) answered "Yes." The rest were about evenly divided between those who said "No" and those who had no opinion. Less than 1 teacher in 5 gave an unequivocal "No" in response to the question.

More secondary than elementary teachers have a definite opinion on this question, and a considerably larger percentage of them than of elementary teachers believe in school censorship of student publications.

	Total	Elementary	Secondary
Yes	64.2%	58.2%	70.7%
No	18.5	20.0	16.9
No opinion	17.3	21.7	12.4

Teachers who answered "Yes" were asked to write in types of articles they thought should be censored. Seventy-five percent of them did so.

The largest proportion, nearly one-third of those writing in types of articles, thought that everything in student publications should be censored. Next largest, slightly less than one-fourth of all respondents to the question, was a group who advocated censorship on grounds of taste. This includes censorship of articles that are pornographic, contain bad language, or deal with taboo subjects, such as sex and drugs.

Few differences appear between the responses of elementary and of secondary teachers on what types of articles should be censored.

Types of articles censored	Total	Elementary	Secondary
All types	32.0%	33.4%	30.8%
Pornography, bad language, sex, drugs	22.3	25.4	19.8
Slander	14.9	10.5	18.4
Critical of school personnel	10.0	9.4	10.5
Critical of government	8.9	10.2	7.9
Other	11.9	11.0	12.6

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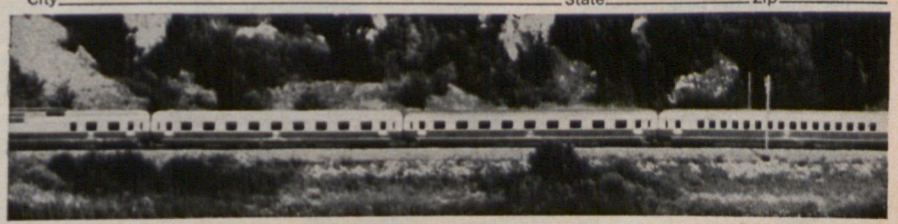

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If you had met him tramping the countryside, waving his arms and muttering to himself, you would have quickened your step toward the safety of your fireside.

His stumpy-legged, barrel-chested figure seemed to attract the stones of small boys and the yelps of stray curs. His servants fled from his towering rages. His landlords threatened to throw him bodily into the street. No wonder his contemporaries counted him as mad.

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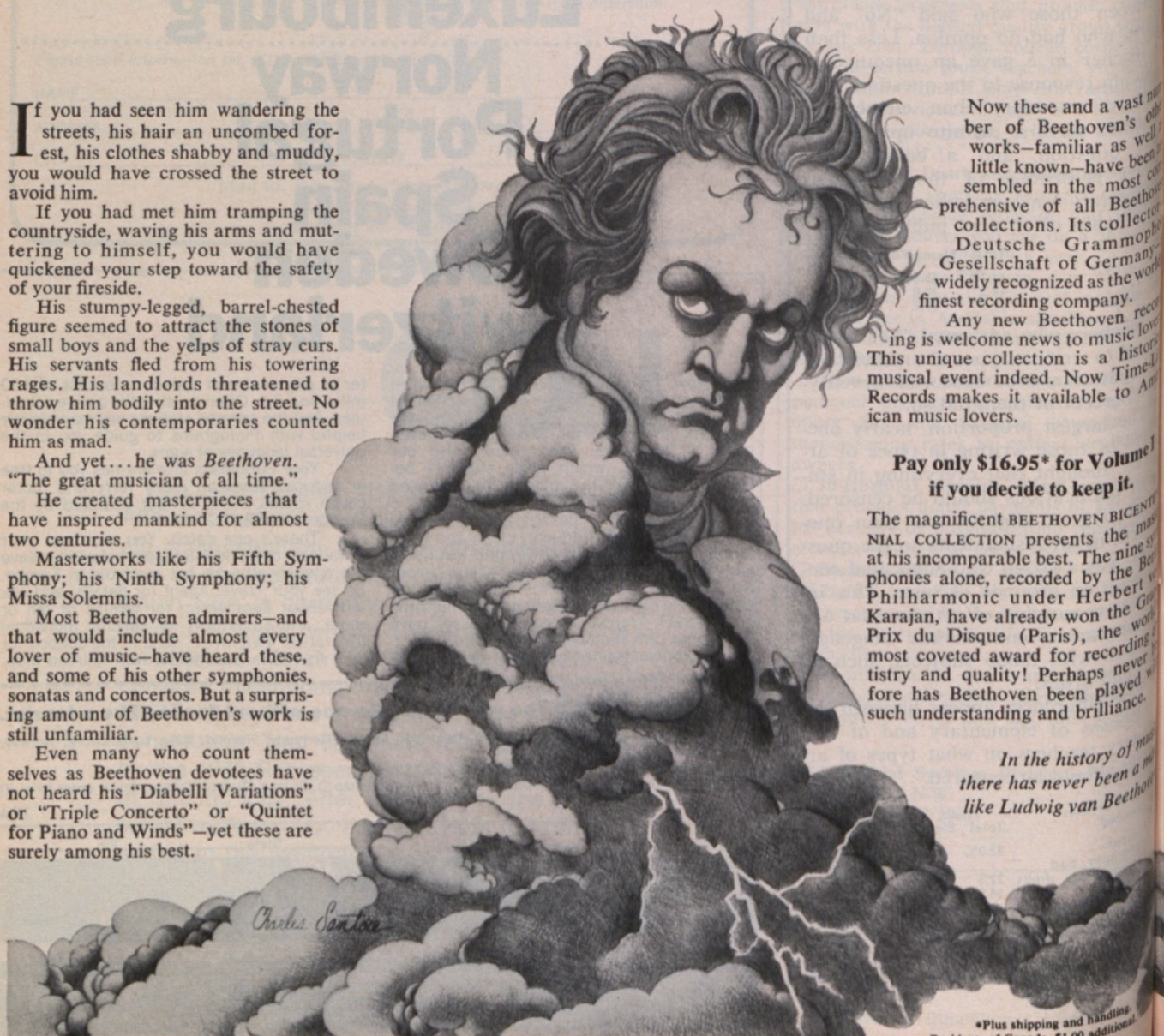

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NEA headquarters: 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, DC 20036. Telephone: Area Code 202, 833-4000.

1972 Convention: June 25-30, Atlantic City.

American Education Week—October 22-28, 1972. Theme: Make Education Top Priority.

NEA membership, May 31, 1971: 1,103,485.

NEA officers and headquarters staff: *NEA Handbook*, pages 10, 382-384.

NEA resolutions: Write for free copy.

NEA units: *Handbook*, pages 109-161.

NEA departments, national affiliates, and associated organizations: *Handbook*, pages 163-189.

NEA memberships and annual dues: Active, $25. Associate, $25. Life or Associate Life, $500 in one payment or $55 a year for 10 consecutive years. Reserve, $12.50. Retired, $2. Educational Secretary, $10. Auxiliary Personnel, $10. Student NEA, $2 through Student NEA Chapters only.

World Confederation of Organizations of the Teaching Profession: Information free from WCOTP/CMOPE, 5 Chemin du Moulin, 1110 Morges, Vd. Switzerland. See *Handbook*, page 365.

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For additional information call or write: *Today's Education*, 1201 16th St. N.W., Washington, DC 20036. Telephone: (202) 833-4110

ILLUSTRATION CREDITS

Cover: Chris Kuhn; pp. 19, 22: Chris Kuhn; pp. 24, 25, 26, 27, 28: Joe DiDio; pp. 46-47, 52: Chris Kuhn; p. 59: James T. Moody.

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BOOKSHELF

Outstanding Education Books of 1970-71

☐ **Pi Lambda Theta, national honor and professional association for women in education,** prepared this list under the direction of Margaret E. Chisholm, dean of the School of Library and Information Services at the University of Maryland, College Park, with the cooperation and advice of panels of educators selected to review each major category of books.

The list is drawn from a comprehensive one of approximately 950 books with a 1970 or 1971 copyright received between July 16, 1970, and July 15, 1971. It has been made available without charge to the NEA for publication in *Today's Education.*

The evaluators represent universities, school systems, state departments of education, and major professional organizations throughout the country. Each evaluator rated only the books in his major field.

Pi Lambda Theta publishes the comprehensive list, *Education Book List, 1970-71.* Copies of the complete list ($1.50 each) may be obtained from Pi Lambda Theta, Suite 800, 1510 H Street, N.W., Washington, DC 20005.

Address inquiries regarding purchase of books to the individual publishers indicated.

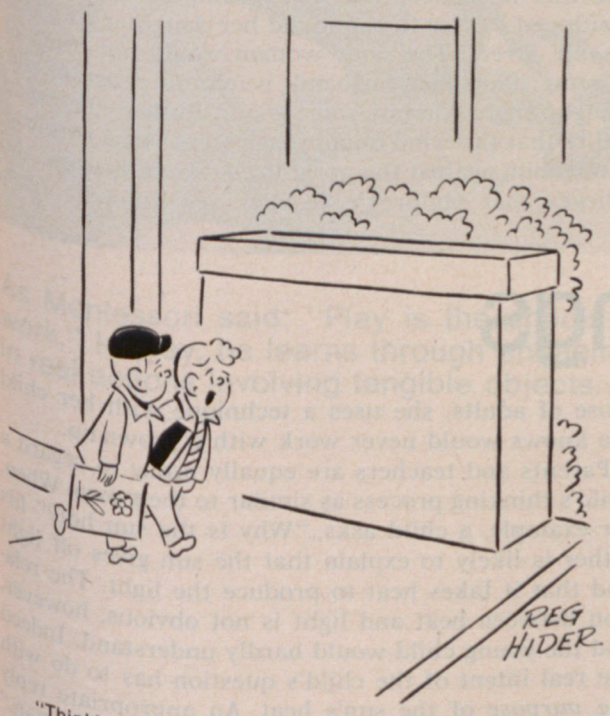
Current Trends and Issues in Education

Crisis in the Classroom: The Remaking of American Education. Charles E. Silberman. This book, which received more votes than any other entry, resulted from a three-year, $300,000, Carnegie Corporation-financed study of the education of educators. A journalist of distinction, Silberman examines the problems that beset American education and describes them with intelligence and compassion. He explains why the widely publicized remedies of the past two decades have proven ineffective and presents explicit recommendations for how schools can be improved. While the book is controversial, Silberman, unlike many other critics of American education, shows empathy for teachers as well as children, both of whom he describes as victims of the way schools are organized. *Crisis in the Classroom* is essential reading for anyone who cares about education. 553 pp. Random House. $10.

Freedom, Bureaucracy, and Schooling. Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. Prepared by the ASCD 1971 Yearbook Committee. Edited by Vernon F. Haubrich, chairman. This yearbook is one of a distinguished line of professional works that have dealt with current and basic areas of interest to all educators. Haubrich states that today's educator must consider three aspects of the growing problems of size, complexity, and bureaucracy of our system of education. First, it is important to analyze explicitly the concepts involved; second, to examine the specific organizational structures within the system of education; and, third, to examine the future of the common schools in America. Seventeen distinguished scholars have contributed their viewpoints on freedom and bureaucracy as related to schooling. 293 pp. Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. $6.50.

The Relevance of Education. Jerome S. Bruner. Edited by Anita Gil. In the introduction, this noted American psychologist states that his book is built around essays written between 1964 and 1970, years of deep and tumultuous change. He sees education in a state of crisis because it has failed to respond to changing social needs. Recently, Bruner's work has gradually shifted away from concern with structured conventional knowledge to a concern for the first two years of life. As a result, his essays make clear that educational reform must begin with understanding how a child acquires information and converts knowledge into action. He stresses the importance of formulating educational strategies that expand

(*Continued on page* 68)



"Thinking doesn't hurt as much as I thought it would."

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Misunderstandings About How Children Learn

DAVID ELKIND, *professor of psychology, College of Arts and Science, the University of Rochester, New York.*

□ **Recently, a young mother of my acquaintance said** with some pride: "I insist that my four-year-old daughter watch *Sesame Street*—even when she prefers doing something else." Concerned about the intellectual development of her child, this mother believes that *making* the girl watch the program will eventually help her do better in school.

Many mothers today are pressuring their preschool children to learn numbers, letters, shapes, and so on. Unfortunately, this parental concern for children's intellectual development often seems greater than their concern for children's feelings, interests, and attitudes. What many parents fail to understand is that attempting to force young children to learn specific content may produce an aversive attitude toward academic learning in general. This attitude of distaste may have such serious long-range effects on young children's academic achievement that it completely outweighs the advantages of being familiar with letters, forms, and numbers today or next week.

The foregoing example illustrates one of several common misunderstandings about the thinking and learning of young children that seem to be current today. In this article, I briefly describe five such common misunderstandings that hold particularly true for young children—and a few for older ones as well.

One of the pernicious misunderstandings about young children is that they are most like adults in their thinking and least like us in their feelings. It is just this misconception that prompted the mother mentioned earlier to command her daughter to watch *Sesame Street*. The same woman would not think of insisting that her husband watch a program she thought might "do him some good." Rather, she would realize that this kind of approach would be a sure way to turn him against the program. And yet, because she believes that children's feelings are different from those of adults, she uses a technique with her child she knows would never work with a grown-up.

Parents and teachers are equally prone to regard a child's thinking process as similar to their own. When, for example, a child asks, "Why is the sun hot?" his father is likely to explain that the sun gives off light and that it takes heat to produce the light. The relation between heat and light is not obvious, however, and the young child would hardly understand. Indeed, the real intent of the child's question has to do with the *purpose* of the sun's heat. An appropriate reply would be "to keep us warm" or "to give us a suntan." These answers are not entirely incorrect and they

As Montessori said: "Play is the child's work." In play, he learns through engaging in real actions involving tangible objects.

correspond to the young child's underlying belief that everything has a purpose.

Because young children are often so capable linguistically, adults often overestimate their capacity to think.

A second misunderstanding about young children is that they learn best while sitting still and listening. This misconception arises because parents tend to generalize from their experiences as adults. It is true that we adults often learn by listening attentively to a lecture or reading a book.

The young child is, however, not capable of mental activity or thinking in the same way as an adult. He learns through engaging in real actions involving tangible objects, such as blocks or dolls.

Thanks to the work of the famed Swiss psychologist, Jean Piaget, we now know that the child's actions upon things are what facilitate his mental activity or thinking. The young child's actions are progressively miniaturized and interiorized until he is able to do in his head what before he had to do with his hands. This internalization of action comes about gradually during early childhood and is completed at age six or seven.

To illustrate this internalization, observe a four-year-old and a six-year-old performing a simple pencil maze. The younger immediately puts pencil to paper and tries to find the right path. The older, in contrast, studies the maze and only after he has mentally decided on the right path does he put pencil to paper.

Accordingly, when we say young children are "active" learners, we must take this in a literal sense. Montessori said: "Play is the child's work." In play, the child is practicing the various actions that he will eventually internalize as thought.

Therefore, however convenient it may be for grown-ups to think that children learn while sitting still, what they learn in this way is likely to have little lasting value. In contrast, *what children acquire through active manipulation of their environment is the ability to think.*

A third common misunderstanding about young children is the belief that they can learn and operate according to rules. Many parents have had the experience of telling a young child over and over again not to hit his little brother or not to take toys apart or to say thank you when he receives something. Because a young child has not yet internalized thought, he cannot internalize rules either. Consequently, while the child understands the prohibition against hitting his brother and against breaking toys in particular instances, he is unable to generalize to new instances. This is true for learning to say thanks.

The young child's inability to learn rules has special implications for the educational programs prepared for him. We have already noted that the young child learns best through playing with and manipulating materials in his environment. His inability to learn general verbal rules supports this observation and argues against his formal education (involving verbal instruction, a curriculum, and educational objectives). Formal education, whether we speak of reading, arithmetic, or spelling, presupposes the inculcation of rules and thus is inappropriate for the majority of preschool children.

On the other hand, many activities are appropriate educational enterprises for preschoolers. Writing and printing letters is a case in point. Both Montessori and Fernald have pointed out the importance of these for later reading.

Writing as preparation for reading makes good theoretical as well as pedagogical sense in light of the ideas offered earlier. Thinking is an internalization of action, so reading can be regarded, in part at least, as deriving from the internalization of writing actions. Obviously, reading involves much more than the ability to reproduce letters but such reproduction is an appropriate prereading activity for children not yet ready for formal instruction in that skill.

Another widespread misunderstanding about young children is that *acceleration* is preferable to *elaboration.* Many parents, for example, spend a great deal of time trying to teach their young children to read or do mathematics. These parents seem to believe that if children have a head start in these special skills they will have a head start generally. The opposite is more likely to be true.

A child who elaborates the skills he does have, such as the ability to arrange materials according to size on a wide range of materials (blocks, sticks, dolls, dogs, and so on), is likely to be better prepared for future learning than a child who has learned a great deal in a short time but who has not had the chance to assimilate and practice what he has learned.

The situation is not unlike that in which one student crams for a test and another studies regularly throughout a semester. While the two may not perform too differently on an exam, the one who has been studying regularly is likely to be better prepared for future courses than the one who makes cramming a regular practice. Parents who try to teach their young children special skills and content are, in effect, teaching a cram course, and the results may be as short-lived for the preschooler as for the college student who crams.

A last common misunderstanding about the learning of young children should be mentioned—one involving the belief that parents and teachers can raise children's IQ. To be sure, IQ is affected by environment, but most middle-class children have probably grown intellectually about as rapidly as their endowment permits. Further enrichment is not likely to have marked effects upon their intellectual ability, although it may affect how they make use of this ability.

Children who have been intellectually deprived can, however, make significant gains in intellectual performance as a consequence of intellectual enrichment. Just as a child who has grown up with an adequate diet will not benefit much from dietary supplements and a child whose diet has been deficient will, so an intellectually well-nourished child is not likely to benefit markedly from further intellectual enrichment whereas a deprived child will.

In large measure, all of these misunderstandings derive from a contemporary overemphasis on intellectual growth to the exclusion of the personal-social side of development. Although I know it sounds old-fashioned to talk about the whole child and tender loving care, I strongly believe that many problems in child rearing and education could be avoided if concern for a child's achievement as a student were balanced by an equally strong concern for his feelings of self-worth as a person. □

Blackberry Pie

A. WAYNE SCRIVNER, *professor, University of South Alabama, Mobile.*

□ **One thing about Miss Cousley: We nearly always** knew what to expect from her. She taught us all our subjects in the sixth and seventh grades and when Barton School departmentalized the junior high grades, we had science and music in her room.

When I first went into her class, my nose was out of joint for a month or more. I'd known I was smart ever since first grade, and since there weren't too many smart kids at Barton, I had always been messenger boy, group leader, and monitor. But not in Miss C's room. She carefully rotated the room responsibilities among all the students and she didn't even have monitors! She said that we didn't need policemen; we were "responsible citizens" (her favorite phrase). We were, too—most of the time!

That brings up another thing about Miss C. Her look! Gosh, I can see it now: a steady gaze that could communicate so many emotions—sorrow, disappointment, patience, and, sometimes, anger. But, believe me, we always got the message!

Still another thing about Miss Cousley: We had a problem with her questions. Unlike our previous teachers who had asked us to fill in blanks and recite dates, names, and places, she was always saying something like "*Why* do you think the water condensed on the glass?" or "Summarize the results of your experiment." Gosh, I never thought so hard in my life.

I guess you get the picture. We had a healthy respect for Miss C, and not only that—we *liked* her.

Now I'll get on with my story. It really began when Elsie came into our class the middle of our year in the seventh grade. Talk about disadvantaged kids! She was the most bedraggled, undernourished, scrawny little thing who ever entered a school door. A lot of us were poor; in fact, several would be called disadvantaged these days. But Elsie was something else. She and her parents and six brothers and sisters lived in a shack on Old Man Harris' place—a dump that had one big room and a small lean-to kitchen with no running water. The family had to carry water to the house from a nearby well.

Elsie wore the same dress for a month—a dingy, faded cotton print. She never looked particularly dirty, but, then again, she didn't look very clean either. I guess a lot of us wouldn't be too clean if we had to carry water a half a mile.

Miss Cousley just accepted Elsie as one of her responsible citizens, and, by this time, we were so accustomed to Miss C's way of operating that we accepted Elsie, too. In fact, we missed her when the family moved on the month before school was out.

Now, this is the funny thing that happened shortly before Elsie left. When April rolled around, we started bringing blackberries to Miss Cousley. We'd found out the year before that she liked them and used them to make pies, cobblers, and jam.

Well, one morning Elsie appeared, eyes aglow with anticipation, and presented Miss C with a piece of blackberry pie wrapped up in brown paper. Great Scott! Blackberry pie made in that waterless, one-and-a-half room shack inhabited by nine people. The pie was so thick with flour that only a little juice had soaked through the wrapping paper!

We watched, apprehensive for Miss C *and* for poor Elsie, who was waiting confidently for a response. We needn't have feared! Our teacher smiled and said, "What a thoughtful thing to do, Elsie. I know I'll enjoy this later today."

Elsie went up to Miss Cousley during the morning to whisper, "When are you going to eat your pie?" Miss C told her she was keeping it for dessert at lunchtime, and Elsie said that was a fine idea.

We always took turns sitting by Miss C in the lunchroom and that day was my turn, but when Elsie asked if she could exchange with me, of course, I had to agree.

Miss C was caught. She ate a little of her lunch, said she couldn't wait any longer for dessert, and proceeded to eat every bite of that miserable, sticky blackberry pie. Then she put her fork down, wiped her lips with her napkin, and turned to the anxious girl sitting beside her and said, "Elsie, you've made my day complete."

I had a pretty good relationship with my teacher, but I overstepped my bounds that day. As we got ready to leave school that afternoon, I sidled up to Miss Cousley and, with a knowing smile, whispered, "I'm sure glad you enjoyed Elsie's pie." And, with *that* look of disappointment, she gazed steadily into my eyes and replied, "Wasn't that a lovely thing for Elsie to do? There are so many people at her house who would have enjoyed that piece of pie." □

This true story won a $100 prize in the 1971 Today's Education Teachers' Writing Competition. Prize funds were supplied by the Reader's Digest Foundation.

For other school stories, see *Schools Are People: An Anthology of Stories Highlighting the Human Drama of Teaching and Learning,* an NEA publication. 1971. 193 pp. $3.50, paper (Stock No. 381-11960); $5.25, hard cover (Stock No. 381-11958).

Innovative Teaching

NEA Presider

"So what have you learned from putting on your colonial fair?" asks innovative teacher Jerry Paradis as he chats with some of his social-studies students behind the scenes.

onald E. Morrison talks with four outstanding teachers

Innovation and individualized instruction are key words in education for the 70's. How do parents, students, and colleagues react to teachers who pay more than lip service to these words? Do all students enjoy working in innovative classes? What are the hallmarks of creative teaching?

NEA President Donald Morrison recently discussed these and other questions with four teachers recommended to the Journal *as typical of the many fine educators whose creative approach extends not only to their teaching but also to their relationships with students. The four come from various parts of the country, from urban and rural areas, and from elementary and secondary classrooms. Here is some of what they said.*

Mr. Morrison: Let's begin by asking each of you to give your name, what and where you teach, and a brief description of the kind of things that you are doing. Will you start, Miss Belanger?

Miss Belanger: I'm Kathy Belanger and I'm a kindergarten teacher in Central Square, a small town north of Syracuse, New York. I started teaching in a very traditional manner, and the results were so poor that I almost left the profession. This year has been completely different, however, because I have changed my role from teacher to diagnostician, and I'm team teaching with the other kindergarten teacher in our school. We have set up interest centers, where we first determine our objectives and then supply the materials the children will use. Also, she and I have changed our reporting system to meet the needs of the program.

Mr. Morrison: Mrs. Hansberry?

Mrs. Hansberry: I'm Ardis Hansberry from University City, Missouri. I teach eighth grade mathematics. The other eighth grade math teacher and I have set up a center which we use to individualize instruction so that we meet the needs of each student. We are trying to provide a prescriptive program in which the teacher and the student lay out the program or course of study. Once this has been done, the student uses the center and the teacher as resources for materials and guidance. We hope eventually to open up the math program so that students will not be tied to a particular class or teacher but will go in and out of the center as they need to get materials.

Mr. Morrison: Mr. Lopez?

Mr. Lopez: I am Luis Lopez, a bilingual teacher in Milwaukee. I teach Mexican and Puerto Rican students in Spanish and English. My students are allowed to speak in either language because they cannot speak English well. I have my students design their courses in their own way. I just guide them.

Mr. Morrison: Mr. Paradis?

Mr. Paradis: My name is Jerry Paradis and I'm from Columbia, Maryland. We opened a new high school last fall—the Wilde Lake Senior High School. It's an open-space school with a modular schedule, and we try to individualize instruction as much as possible.

The foundation of our program is a learning-activity package in which we utilize multimedia, multilevel, and multimode materials. Also, we are trying to use various alternatives for every student—contract systems, different types of work programs, and the like. We try to reach students in every way possible.

Mr. Morrison: Do you believe that teachers in general are trying new approaches or are most of them still carrying on business as usual? Who'd like to respond to that?

Mr. Lopez: I think it's "business as usual" for most of them. Perhaps they don't try to change courses because it involves too much work.

Mrs. Hansberry: I agree, but for a different reason. I think a lot of teachers get bogged down in clerical work. This is particularly true for newer teachers. They are full of enthusiasm when they start out, but after two or three years they find they can't do innovative things because the building is not made that way or the school curriculum hinders them.

Miss Belanger: A lot of teachers feel that with the open-type classroom they wouldn't be able to cover everything called for by our state-established curriculum. They're afraid that if they didn't do that for each child the administration would be down on them.

Also, maintaining an open classroom calls for a lot more work than a regular classroom. We have to change our centers every day or the children get bored. The reporting system is also a problem. Several teachers have changed their classroom approach but continue to use the same reporting system with letter grades. If each child is working at his own level, letter or number grades are not appppropriate.

Mr. Paradis: I guess it's because of my immediate experience, but I think innovation is on the threshold of breaking through almost nationwide. I recently spent some time out in Denver at the National Council for the Social Studies annual meeting talking with administrators and teachers from various parts of the country who are interested in new things that are happening. The inquiry approach to social studies has really caught on. I think many of my colleagues are using it.

Mr. Morrison: There's a common

President Morrison

thread running through what you have said. It's individuality—the attempt to diagnose how you can be a sharper professional in meeting student needs. Is that something you picked up as an individual professional person, or is it something that was pushed down from above?

Mrs. Hansberry: In my case, I saw the need for individualization. I have always been aware of the weaknesses of a traditional classroom where the teacher has a two-week topic, say in multiplying fractions, and at the end of the two weeks he's through with it and goes on to the next thing. Perhaps a third of the kids are ready to go on, another third don't understand at all, and the rest are only halfway there. Individualizing helps you meet the needs of all three groups.

Mr. Lopez: The needs of each student are different. I teach the way I do because I teach a different type of student.

Miss Belanger: In my district, at least in my building, there was a realization that we had to begin with the fact-finding process. We give achievement tests and after looking at the results, we see the need for treating each child uniquely and differently.

Mr. Paradis: We spent last summer in a six-week workshop where we committed ourselves as a total faculty to the idea of individualized instruction. It was not a commitment foisted by any particular individual upon the group. It was a total commitment for everyone, including the principal.

Mr. Morrison: Who provided the leadership for this in the district?

Mr. Paradis: The county superintendent.

Mr. Morrison: This is an interesting point because I think American teachers have been accused of not being responsive to change. I disagree with this because in many cases teachers haven't been given the opportunity to individualize.

Miss Belanger: Of course, Mr. Paradis' situation is quite unusual because I understand that innovative teachers were brought into Columbia from all over the country, along with an innovative principal. So, it's just like a dream to be able to have a setup like that—a round school, no walls, and lots of money.

Mr. Paradis: Yes, the school's architecture is unique. Each subject matter area has an open space where several teachers work with students. The media center is suspended halfway between the first floor and the second floor. The building is designed to allow maximum flexibility in the teaching environment. In terms of money and size of staff, however, Wilde Lake High School is comparable to any other school in our area.

Mr. Morrison: What effect does this environment have on students? Does an innovative approach encourage children to be creative in their work and in their thinking?

Mr. Paradis: Students react to innovative teaching in different ways. Some of them have difficulty functioning in a completely open situation; they need more structure. Others flourish on it. We must provide a variety of learning situations for students.

Mr. Morrison: It goes back to individuality—

Mr. Paradis: Yes. I have some kids who are able to build their own curriculum. But for other students I have to set down the objectives and provide a rationale for following them. What teachers have to offer in the 1970's are alternatives rather than saying this or that is the only way.

Mrs. Hansberry: Some students cannot cope with a very open classroom situation and need to have more structure while others can go on completely by themselves. One of the things I try to develop with my eighth graders has nothing to do with course content but a lot to do with them as people and that's the confidence to do things on their own. A lot of kids are afraid of math—afraid to try. I've helped them not to be afraid.

Mr. Lopez: When a student realizes that his teacher is innovative, he becomes more interested in a course and he wants to come to school because school means something to him. I know. I teach Mexican and Puerto Rican students. People think those students never go to school—that they're lazy. But this is not so.

When students plan their own course, it means something to them. They can do research. They can bring in their own speakers. They can try new things. As a result, they do come to school and they do learn. You'd be surprised at the number of students who want to take a course like this because it means something to them.

Mr. Morrison: Is it necessary to have strong administrative backing to break with tradition? If so, how did you go about getting it?

Mr. Paradis: Well, let me describe the ideal principal as a person who is a catalyst for change—who will promote change in your classroom, who will want you to innovate. My principal is like that.

Mrs. Hansberry: I'm not sure a teacher needs the backing of the principal. If he isn't actively trying

Luis Lopez

to stop you, I think the situation is acceptable. I think of our principal as a facilitator who helps us do the things we want to do.

Mr. Lopez: I feel you really need the backing and support of the principal, the school board, and the people who are involved in curriculum construction.

Mr. Morrison: Did you first devise a plan and then present it?

Mr. Lopez: Yes, those of us involved in the bilingual program had a plan, and we presented it to the school board. They have been good to us because they are satisfied with our program.

Miss Belanger: I see the need for backing in order to get materials if for no other reason. Last year we had a new superintendent who had worked in an open situation. He saw our need and discussed it with the principal, and so when we told our principal that we wanted change, he was ready to help us.

Mr. Paradis: Let me give you an example of what I feel a principal can do. We have what we call an advisee group system, which has replaced the traditional homeroom setup. Every teacher is assigned 21 students that he will keep for the duration of their high school life. This plan includes the principal, who has his own advisee group. He has set up a curriculum of ideas for us—things we can do as advisers. He sends out bulletins, serves as a teacher aide in our classes for a day, and shares ideas. He talks with the students, gets their ideas, and then brings them back to us.

Mr. Morrison: It's interesting to hear these various viewpoints. To sum up, do you need administrators or facilitators?

Mrs. Hansberry: I think teachers need facilitators. Many administrators can't help us because they have lost touch with what's going on in the classroom.

Mr. Morrison: Of course, facilitators can be trained in a very short period of time. Then teachers are faced with this proposition: Are we now prepared to govern ourselves as we adopt classroom innovations?

Mr. Paradis: Do you mean that if administrators are to function as facilitators, their jobs could merely be filled by paraprofessionals?

Mr. Morrison: Well, many elementary principals will tell you they are so bogged down with clerical work that a secretary could do the things they are doing.

Mrs. Hansberry: Yes. Their two main functions seem to be clerical work and discipline.

Mr. Paradis: If teachers are performing a more important function than administrators, then they should be paid accordingly. As things stand, administrators are paid more to facilitate than the teacher is paid to teach.

Mr. Morrison: Are you talking about the Peter Principle?

Mr. Paradis: I am simply stating that most teachers do not get proper compensation for the tremendous job they do.

Mr. Morrison: How do parents react to classroom innovations?

Miss Belanger: In my district, they come into the room for orientation before school starts. When we start telling them what we're going to do, they get alarmed. The minute they hear words like *open, individualized, responsibility for learning,* they seem to get the idea of a free-for-all. They tell us they've spent five years raising their children to obey, and now we are going to let the children run wild. Of course, when they really understand what we're saying—and especially when they see our classroom in action—they approve.

Mrs. Hansberry: Many parents think of innovation as gimmicks and permissiveness, but, in my experience, they accept innovation if they see it results in some growth in their children. However, I don't think *drill* is a dirty word. I have my children drill; they do it individually, but they do it. A good many kids who have been in so-called innovative classrooms come out with wild ideas and nothing concrete. I believe that if innovation results in concrete progress, it is successful. Parents see that, and they appreciate it.

Mr. Morrison: I would be interested in your reaction, Mr. Lopez. I assume you are dealing with disadvantaged populations. The one thing that constantly comes up on any kind of poll is that parents expect their youngsters to get the basics—reading, writing, and arithmetic—so the problem may be that creative change has been packaged improperly. You can't have something without structure. I'd be interested to hear what the parents of your pupils expect of you as a teacher.

Mr. Lopez: In the beginning, some parents opposed the way we were teaching because they didn't understand what we were doing. But now we have monthly meetings for parents at which we report what we are doing, and parents are enthusiastic. Parents come to the meetings and they participate because the bilingual program is a community program. We have funds from Title I and Title VII of ESEA, which means the program is run with community participation.

Kathy Belanger

The parents have high aspirations for their children. Most of them want their kids to go on to college.

Mr. Morrison: What is the community attitude in Columbia, Mr. Paradis?

Mr. Paradis: Fortunately, we had some good public relations programs prior to construction of the school. But I do think that if a school offers alternatives to students in the type of instruction they are going to get, it must also offer alternatives to parents. If the parents are against the open school and don't feel their children can function in that situation, they should be given alternatives. Communities ought to have various kinds of schools and then allow parents to select the kind best suited for their children.

Mr. Morrison: Do you think individual schools can offer alternatives within the school?

Mr. Paradis: Definitely! Some high schools are heading in that direction now. That's certainly our goal—to offer enough alternative programs for every type of student and every type of personality and every type of teacher. Some teachers can't function comfortably in an open-space situation. It seems to me that one of the keys to successful innovation is that the teachers have something to say about the climate and conditions and the direction in which they are going to innovate. If it's imposed on them, they tend to resist it.

Mr. Morrison: How do other faculty members respond to innovative efforts by their colleagues?

Mrs. Hansberry: If you have a school where several people are doing creative things and there are other people who are not, the innovative teachers may feel some negative pressure without its being overt. But many teachers who have worked in a traditional setting want to try something different—it's just that they don't know how.

Miss Belanger: Our school is helping teachers who are really afraid to break away from tradition. Perhaps when the pupils have a special class, such as art, the regular teacher is freed to go into another room and maybe work with a small group of children. Some teachers don't know how to break into individualized instruction. Being able to start with maybe three or four students at a time usually makes them feel comfortable. That's better than pressuring them to change over all at once.

Mr. Morrison: It's ironic that we expect beginning teachers to do the most sophisticated things before they do the elementary ones. In other words, we put an inexperienced teacher in a class situation with 30 students. The method they're using in some teacher education programs is first to teach a prospective teacher how to teach one individual, then a small group, and finally a class.

Miss Belanger: I don't think most colleges lend themselves to that approach. Most of my professors lectured day after day—the worst form of teaching. All they gave us was theory. I think colleges ought to start revamping their whole curriculum.

Mr. Morrison: Many of us feel that teacher education needs drastic overhauling—especially at the preservice level.

There are several ways this can be approached. One is to wage a head-on fight with your state departments of education, with your state accrediting agencies, and the regional and national associations. If past history is any guide, the job might get done in 137 years.

Or what would be your reaction to this approach? NEA might set up four centers across the country where teachers who had been identified as bright and creative would receive the best instructional technology available and then be given a sort of super certificate as a teacher of teachers. That would be one way to jar the regular credential world.

Mr. Lopez: I like that idea, but too many people would oppose it—especially on the college level.

Mr. Morrison: Well, how about bringing the college professors in and teaching them at the same time?

Mr. Lopez: Great!

Mrs. Hansberry: There ought to be master teachers at a teachers college so that people who are learning to be teachers can see how teaching really works.

Mr. Paradis: I went through the Teacher Corps program in Miami, and this was a down-to-earth type of education. While I was working for my degree, I went to an inner-city school for two years with a master teacher. That was a wonderful orientation into teaching because I learned on the front line, yet there was someone there to observe me and help me correct my mistakes. Teachers should have major responsibility for the training of prospective teachers.

Mr. Morrison: Mr. Paradis said the entire faculty where he teaches was able to spend a summer in planning and preparation. Some people say that teachers should spend only four days with students and spend the fifth day with other

Ardis Hansberry

teachers, identifying problems and discussing solutions. How would you feel about that?

Miss Belanger: That would be great! In our school, nobody knows much about what's happening in other classrooms. So, when teachers say, "I wouldn't be able to work in that type of program," how do they know? They haven't even seen it in operation. The faculty should work as a unified whole and not just as teachers of separate grades. I don't think there should be grades anymore.

Mrs. Hansberry: I agree. Our teachers never get to see each other except before and after school.

Mr. Lopez: Teachers should get together at least once a week even for half a day. An interchange of ideas is really needed.

Mrs. Hansberry: I see a need for conversation between the junior high and the high school and the junior high and the elementary school—to provide continuity. If teachers are going to individualize, they need to have continuity from one school to the next.

Mr. Paradis: Teachers almost need free time every day to review where each student is and what materials he's going to need for the next two or three days.

Mrs. Hansberry: We have a planning period, but it only gives me time to deal with four or five of my students. When I check papers, I generally put another assignment or comment on each student's paper, and I have to check papers every night for all four of my classes.

Miss Belanger: It's difficult to find planning time. I have a partial solution, though it isn't the greatest. I carry around index cards all day in the pocket of the smock I wear. Whenever I notice a pupil need, I pull out that child's card and jot it down. Later, I fill in important facts.

Mr. Morrison: What are the principles of good innovative teaching as opposed to a gimmicky approach?

Miss Belanger: With the gimmicky approach a teacher works with two or three children at a time, but all the children are using the same series of textbooks and are studying the same page. That isn't individualized learning at all. The main thing is diagnosing each child's problem and working with him when the need arises.

Mr. Paradis: In-depth planning is one of the keys to good teaching. It's not a gimmick at all. You not only have clear objectives but a good evaluation program as well, where each student takes a pretest and a posttest, plus a self-assessment test for his own benefit.

Also, multimedia has a definite place in innovation—multilevel to meet all the individual needs and multimode for different types of group situations, such as seminar groups, small groups, and large groups. Giving students meaningful experiences in the community is another hallmark of creative teaching.

One last point: You can't just throw together a program and expect it to work. If students haven't been trained to work in small groups, the effort will be ineffective.

Mr. Morrison: Mr. Lopez?

Mr. Lopez: To me the most important thing in innovative teaching is that you care for the students —that they know what you are doing is for their benefit. A student learns not only in the classroom but outside. I have informal gatherings for my students at my home once a month. We discuss what we do in the classroom, we play records, we have soft drinks, and the kids talk. I learn so much about my students this way. And they learn something about me—that I'm a teacher but also a human being and a friend, that I have a wife and child. They know me and they trust me—that's the most important thing.

Mrs. Hansberry: One test of creative teaching is whether or not there is growth on the part of both students and the teacher. If there has been observable concrete growth in the subject area, in the students as individuals, and in the teacher as a person, then the innovation is worthwhile.

If no goals have been set up, students don't know what they're doing. There have to be goals for individual students, for the teacher, and for the group.

Mr. Morrison: At a conference I attended recently in Florida, the vice-president of Oakland Community College in Bloomfield Hills, Michigan, gave a talk and presented a film dealing with his school.

It seems that this college of some 15,000 students used to have a 50 percent failure rate in some subjects. There was no apparent reason for the high failure rate. So the college embarked on a new program whereby qualified personnel analyze the students' cognitive styles. So far about 30 percent of the students and faculty are involved; by 1975, 60 to 70 percent will be. They observe the students, test them, and put them in all kinds of different situations for the first few weeks of school. They try to find out just how a student responds to a lec-

Jerry Paradis

ture, for example, and how much he really gets from reading, seeing films, listening to tapes, and so on.

After about a month of this, each student has a pretty good idea of how he learns. The school then matches up instructors and students in terms of teaching styles that are compatible with learning styles. Students are free to engage in the type of learning activity best suited for them. Some students find, for example, that just sitting around in a rap group reinforces learning better than anything else they might do.

Well, the college has reduced the failure rate from 50 percent to 10 percent. This program really gets down to individualization. You know, we definitely need to learn much more about how people actually learn.

Let me ask this question: Do you think perhaps there has been too much emphasis on individualization geared toward materials with too little emphasis placed on how various individuals learn?

Mrs. Hansberry: I think that's true. A lot of individualization goes no further than the use of several different types of materials.

Mr. Morrison: One thing I'm curious about: How do you get to know so many individual students and discover their needs?

Mrs. Hansberry: I have 156 students and I see them in groups of 37 or 38. I also have some of them in the morning for conference. I just sit with the kids and we talk informally. This helps me to get to know them.

Mr. Morrison: What percent of your time do the four of you spend in listening to students rather than lecturing?

Mrs. Hansberry: I listen 85 or 90 percent of the time.

Mr. Paradis: I've lectured only once this year.

Mr. Morrison: Do you get most of the materials you ask for?

Mrs. Hansberry: I have a lot of materials, but not the equipment to use them. For example, I don't have a tape player that I can keep in my room; I need three or four with earphones. The physical setup of many older buildings and the need for more equipment are barriers to individualizing.

One elementary school in University City is set up the way I'd like for my math program. The students go to a media center, the teacher makes an assignment, and then teacher aides give them the needed materials. The students are very proficient in using equipment.

Mr. Paradis: We do many of those things now. We have different learning stations in the room. We have a testing area, a quiet reading area, areas where kids can work in groups or as individuals, and a group discussion area where students can rap with their friends if they want a break from schoolwork.

Mrs. Hansberry: We try to set up our library like that. We are talking about putting in carpeting and moving the teachers' desks in there. But the physical limitations of old buildings are hampering.

Mr. Morrison: What special problems are involved in carrying out innovative programs? Do you have conflicts with the system?

Miss Belanger: Well, the other kindergarten teacher and I act on the assumption that each child should be responsible for his own learning. However, the minute those children step outside the door of our room, someone takes them by the hand. They're not given any responsibility, and I think this confuses them.

Mrs. Hansberry: It's even more degrading for junior high kids who have to have a pass to go anywhere. I've been doing a black studies unit with some kids just because they wanted me to. We were studying about slavery and the fact that plantation slaves had to have a pass to go from one place to another. My students all went around saying, "Yeah, this school sure is a plantation!" When you let students have freedom and responsibility and then they are treated like idiots outside your classroom, it does work against what you are trying to do inside your classroom.

Mr. Paradis: That's one of the big contradictions in education that I'm always trying to rationalize with students.

Mrs. Hansberry: Somehow we have to find a way to let students practice responsibility because this is one of the biggest student demands.

Mr. Paradis: Public relations are important. Once you've laid the groundwork for giving students freedom and responsibility, the situation improves. One of the things we have done is to try to get a dynamic type of parent-student-teacher association going and to get the students involved. In everything we do, we try to get these four ingredients involved—parents, teachers, administrators, and students.

Mr. Morrison: It sounds to me as if you are all working harder and enjoying teaching more than ever before. These must be two characteristics of today's innovative teaching. □

Seeking Tomorrow's Excellence Today

—NEA's New Push in Improvement of Instruction

We trained hard—but it seemed that every time we were beginning to form up into teams we would be reorganized. . . . I was to learn later in life that we tend to meet any new situation by reorganizing, and a wonderful method it can be for creating an illusion of progress while producing confusion, inefficiency, and demoralization.

—Petronius Arbiter (?—A.D. 66)

□ **One thing is certain: We do not have the luxury** of waiting for tomorrow to happen. If there is going to be a tomorrow, it must be started today. Without being defensive, we have to accept certain facts as reality, but in turn, only to use these in planning *now* for a future of excellence.

Almost every educator knows that the real operational goal of those who control public education has not been to have good schools, but to have schools that are just good enough. Social forces have burdened our population with the frustrations of poverty and unemployment. These same forces, with an untroubled conscience, have also burdened many schools with a scarcity of resources to do the job. It is no accident that state school subsidy formulas have almost always discriminated against the cities. No, it is only possible to believe that the public schools are, on purpose, no better than the people who control money and power have wanted them to be.

Bluntly stated, to date, educators have not made basic educational policy. This fact is of central importance because it argues for a differing strategy leading to educational improvement.

For example, to speculate, what would have happened had the United States Congress, before authorizing the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, designed some kind of a national system of educational priorities? And suppose that the national system of priorities had taken two, three, eight, or 10 years to carry out? And suppose Congress had worked out some kind of design for the improvement of education? And suppose instead of the U.S. Office of Education's getting proposals and allocating money, they had, in fact, created an organization to which they gave money on the basis of some grand outline of job responsibility?

In other words, suppose a number of models for the total improvement of education had been developed, what then might have been the ways in which the money could be spent? Would we have had waste? Would we have seen more than insignificant developments growing out of these dollars? Well, maybe so, but no one will ever know because it was not done that way. Instead, we broadcast the money like grass seed on unprepared soil. The strategy used has not worked well, as many now agree.

At NEA a new wave of excitement can be felt. Unfettered by the past, we recognize that the improvement of education is a big expensive job which needs specialists and money in great amounts; and perhaps even more importantly, needs systematizing. It needs an organizational structure. To depend in some naïve way upon each local to bootstrap itself into excellence is not only futile, it is foolish.

The essence of any plan for creating excellence in education is to distinguish between a national and a federal operation. NEA has a voluntary delegation of power and support that flows from the local to the state and to the national, thus providing an independent and representative authority. Members are actually the key.

Conversely, a federal centralization structure by any name is actually not independent or representative of local forces. Rather it maintains a flow from federal to state to local. An additional advantage of a strong national organization is that it allows for healthy competition as well as cooperation with a federal one. Both can become better in the process.

Achieving voluntary cooperation is, of course, the

capstone of a national organization. NEA recognizes that for years strategies for achieving excellence in education were determined at the top and passed down, typically, first to local boards and administrators, and finally to classroom teachers and students. Within this same pattern, many researchers built new tools without working directly with the teachers and learners, only to discover that their products gathered dust and were ill-suited for classroom use. We need to arrive at a position where teachers at least have a chance to tell researchers what teachers need.

A number of efforts have been launched by NEA as we intensify the pursuit of excellence. At the outset, it should be noted that no idea is sacred, and even when things fail, we can learn.

One major activity is to invert the manner in which educational needs have been established. By turning the funnel upside down, we can begin to collect needs as viewed by classroom teachers, students, and our membership at large. The reason for securing this type of information is that it allows for the development of programs based upon genuine membership needs. No field will remain untouched, including teacher preparation, in-service education, educational needs of learners, and new instructional developments.

At the heart of our pursuit of excellence is the conviction that teachers should have a major role in the decision-making process. We simply can no longer afford to repeat the mistakes of the past by ignoring those most responsible for day-to-day education. An informed member can make good decisions if he has accurate information available to him.

Teachers need time to teach and to study. For the most part, teachers are trapped in isolation and are not provided with adequate time or information to find out what is happening in education. Admittedly this is a carry-over from a model imported from the British in our pre-Revolutionary days—one which I call the "Colonial Dame." The "Dame" was expected to be a dispenser of information, a paragon of virtue, and at times the counterpart of the oracle of Delphi. Nobody could be this good. It was no accident that many schools settled for instructional programs just good enough, instead of striving for excellence.

To break completely out of the past, NEA is recommending the establishment of four *national* teacher centers. Comprehensive in nature, these centers could provide teachers with protracted periods of in-depth study. In real settings, classroom teachers working with other classroom teachers could learn about the latest instructional technology, methods, and materials available, as well as begin the process of learning how to construct their own. Genuine partnerships involving a variety of specialists could be utilized, and our learners would benefit from the best we can produce. Teachers, learners, researchers, developers, professors of education, administrators, board members, and parents could begin cooperatively to develop better programs. Remember, all of us are going to need constant updating lest we become creatures of the past.

We need to develop alternative ways to educate within our public school framework. Not only do students need alternatives, but many teachers need to have the freedom to participate in developing alternatives. The four national teacher centers would provide a real-world setting in which to explore alternatives. Most teachers want to be better; all they request is that somebody provide genuine leadership. A one-shot consultant, or two-day county institute will not produce substantial change, but providing real time and money over long periods could make a difference.

Somewhere between complete permissiveness and complete proscription is reality. Without whipping a dead horse, individualism is a real need. How to best provide for this is still not completely known. It is not too difficult to imagine alternatives which would permit several concurrent programs to operate at the same time and in the same school. For example, why not provide basic skills, a dialogue of reality, academic inquiry, and an opportunity for students to do their own thing?

Another activity in which NEA has become deeply involved is the tracing or tracking of innovations. Many new programs are started and claims for their success made before the soundness of the idea has been thoroughly explored. In bandwagon style, teachers are forced to move with the innovation or be considered impediments to progress. One way to avoid this is by actually monitoring what is happening. Early successes in any new program are unlikely. Lasting changes in education take hard work and time. Instant pudding can be bought, but not instant education. As a monitor, NEA can isolate fads and protect good innovations. With a functionally operating division, NEA can endorse and certify programs of worth. This monitoring requires tight coordination among locals, states, and the NEA. What happens in one part of the country can indeed have an effect on another part.

Unlike Petronius, NEA's Division of Instruction and Professional Development has embarked on a major reorganization plan designed to produce a planned attack for the improvement of education. As a part of the scheme, a screening committee has been established to carefully consider, against specified criteria, any new program efforts. Also a new council has been appointed by President Morrison and approved by the Executive Committee. [See the February issue of the *Reporter* for a list of council members.]

Yes, we are in business. Our aim is to stop putting patches on education, plan for the future now, and recognize that teaching is a profession.

Instruction provides the tools to get the teaching job done. Our most important product will be a generation of children taught to think for themselves!

—**James W. Becker,** *assistant executive secretary, Division of Instruction and Professional Development, and executive director, National Foundation for the Improvement of Education.*

YOU WOULDN'T PRESCRIBE THE SAME MEDICINE FOR ALL OF THEM. WHY PRESCRIBE THE SAME LESSON?

Not all children benefit from swallowing the same educational medicine.
Each has his own aptitudes and interests. Each has his favorite learning media.
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When that diagnosis is made, you need the materials to fill his scholastic prescription. You want a way to make your classes palatable as well as beneficial.
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GUILTY? NOT MY KID!

This is typically a parent's first reaction to the news of his child's arrest. Attorney Neil Chayet, author of *Your Child and the Law,* gives parents advice on this and many other problems, such as what to look for in a lawyer and how to give a child emotional support.

This essential guide—the latest in the NEA's *Briefing for Parents* series—is meant to help parents help their children. The series began as a part of the annual observance of American Education Week. This year's celebration (October 22-28) carries the theme, "Make Education Top Priority."

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A BRIEFING FOR PARENTS

YOUR CHILD AND THE LAW

This question-and-answer feature has been prepared for you with the hope that you will never need to use it. It may seem incredible to you that your *child will ever get in trouble with the law, and chances are that he won't. However, you can't afford to dismiss the possibility, because in these troubled times young people from all walks of life are being arrested daily. What youngsters say and do after their arrest and what their parents say and do may make a tremendous difference in the eventual outcome of their cases. For this reason, we urge you to read the feature carefully now and to keep it ready for immediate reference should you ever receive word that your child has been arrested.*

NEIL L. CHAYET, *the attorney who provided the answers in the feature, has had wide experience and great success as a defense lawyer for young people and receives calls almost daily from parents all over the country asking for legal help in connection with a serious problem involving their son or daughter.*

He is the youngest trustee in the history of Tufts University, a member of the faculty of Boston University Law and Medical Schools, a member of the staff of the Department of Psychiatry of the Massachusetts General Hospital, and chairman of the Family Law Committee of the Massachusetts Bar Association. He has also had a great deal of experience in dealing with the problem of drug abuse from many directions, having spoken to legal and nonlegal audiences all over the country and having served as a delegate to the United Nations drug conferences in Vienna and Geneva.

□ **Are there any things that parents can do in bringing up children that will lessen the chances that their son or daughter will get in trouble with the law?**

As parents and citizens, we must respect the law and teach our children to respect it. At the same time, we should work constructively to change laws which we feel are unjust or unfair. For example, when a young person complains about the unfairness of marijuana laws that impose a jail term of several years for possession of a small amount of marijuana, it is very frustrating to him if a parent merely says, "It's the law, therefore it is correct." Part of teaching respect for the law is instilling in the child an understanding that the law must reflect society's wishes and needs but that it must be as fair as possible to all or to as many segments as possible of that society.

Respect for the law-making process is as important as respect for the laws themselves. It's a good idea to involve young people in working toward the election of good legislators and other public officials as well as in constructively organizing to present points of view for new laws or changes in old ones which are unjust or unenforceable.

Is it helpful to encourage young children to think of the police as helpers and protectors?

It would certainly be most helpful to do so, but this may be difficult because many children have learned to fear the police and to view them as an enemy. To them, the policeman is often seen as the one who says, "Move on," when they are standing on the sidewalk talking with their friends. It would be great if we could somehow change that image, for which I think the police are partly to blame in some instances.

Whether children view the police as helpers and protectors or as an enemy probably depends in large part on who the children are, on whether they are black or white, on what kind of neighborhood they live in, and on how they and their families have been treated by the police. Unfortunately, many ghetto kids fear the police.

Parents can do a great deal to give their child a positive image of the police by helping him establish a friendly relationship with a policeman long before he is old enough to be in trouble with the law. How we act toward the policeman in our neighborhood and how he acts toward us will do much to shape the way our children respond to the police in general.

Does your experience suggest that children of very permissive parents are more likely to get into trouble than children of very authoritarian parents?

I have defended innumerable children charged with a great variety of crimes and acts, and I am continually amazed that their upbringing seems to run the full gamut. If I had to make a blanket statement, I would probably say that the lack of realistic rational guidelines, fairly and just applied, causes the most problems at home as well as with the law and with the symbols of authority outside the family.

When strict authoritarianism or total permissive-

ness, combined with lack of rationality and lack of logic, exist within the home, rebellion almost inevitably follows. Very often, this rebellion may involve a striking out, not only against the home but against society in general, soon followed by involvement with the police, the courts, and the law.

It would be difficult for me to say which causes the greater problem—an atmosphere of great permissiveness or one of authoritarianism. On balance, however, I feel that the child whose parents are very permissive and who provide less than adequate discipline can usually be dealt with more effectively than the child who is rebelling against a strict and misguided authoritarian background.

What are the differences, if any, in the kind of lawbreaking done by children of different socioeconomic classes?

I don't know whether the difference lies in the type of lawbreaking or in the fact that some youngsters seem more likely than others to get caught. In the lower socioeconomic classes, the most frequent crimes involve outright destruction of property. Other than this, however, it is difficult to draw distinctions based on socioeconomic class.

Children of all socioeconomic classes are involved in thefts of property. Car thefts or "borrowing" cars, which is known as "use without authority," are particularly frequent. Use without authority is treated as a misdemeanor, whereas larceny, which involves an actual attempt to steal and sell the car, is a felony. Most children who take a car are charged with use without authority.

Assaults by children of all socioeconomic classes also seem to be on the rise, and, as we are all aware, crimes involving drugs and alcohol have greatly increased in the last several years.

If a child is arrested, will he surely be allowed to call his parents?

In every state so far as I know, the law provides that anyone who is arrested is entitled to make at least one telephone call. Now whether the law is always lived up to and when the call is allowed to be made is another problem. If the law is breached, parents should certainly make this fact known to the lawyer handling the case, because in many cases judges often dismiss cases if they are convinced the defendants were not allowed to make a telephone call shortly after the arrest.

Do most kids call, or are many of them too afraid of parental wrath?

While young people may be very much afraid of parental wrath, after arrest, they are almost inevitably more afraid of the police and the law. Being arrested is a truly frightening experience, so in almost every situation except when there's been total estrangement with the parents, the child will call.

How you react to your child when he calls is almost as important as whether or not he will call you in the first place. When your child has been arrested, he is really in need of your understanding (if not your forgiveness) and of your willingness to help him. One father told me he would not go to his son because "the sight of him in a cell would be too much"; another would not go because he was so angry at his son for getting into trouble. This is not the time for such reactions; go to your child and remember that he needs you more than ever when he has gotten into serious trouble.

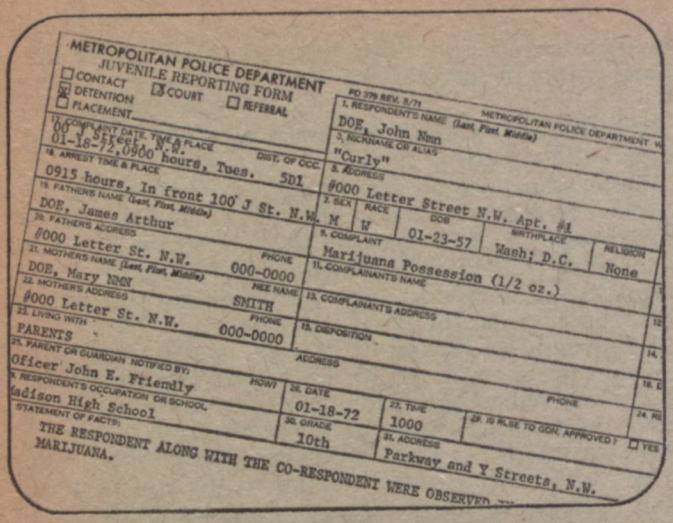
If a child is arrested, how soon are parents generally informed?

The answer to this question is that parents should be informed immediately—before any interrogation and as soon as the child is brought to the police station. Although prompt reporting is of crucial importance, I have seen many cases where parents weren't called until hours after the arrest had taken place. Like a great deal else in the administration of criminal justice, it really depends on the individual police department and so often on the police officer himself. Every parent and indeed every community must make certain that police officers act promptly and justly. We must all continually remember that in the last analysis, responsibility for bad police officers, for bad laws, and for bad institutions within our society lies at the door of every one of us.

Responding to this question gets us into a discussion of the Gault decision of the Supreme Court of the United States, which states that a child is entitled to virtually all the rights given to an adult criminal defendant. Many people have condemned the Gault decision. They say that by invoking the formal legal procedures required for adult criminal defendants in cases involving children we make it more difficult for the juvenile process to remain flexible enough to deal with the needs of the individual youngster and his family.

My feeling is that if a fine judge who really wants to help a child is hearing a case, the informal process is great. However, if the judge is harsh and unsympathetic, then the informality of the process often leads to tremendous abuses, such as commitment of children to reform schools until they reach age 21. I can't think of anything worse. If you place a 14- or 15-year-old child in a reform school until he's 21 years of age, then you've admitted failure and started him well on his way to a lifetime of crime.

The Gault decision specifies that a child has the right to a lawyer and that he must be informed of all his other rights. The bad aspect of the Gault decision is that it invokes the formal criminal process against a youngster, and this may be very destructive. That's



METROPOLITAN POLICE DEPARTMENT
JUVENILE REPORTING FORM
☐ CONTACT ☒ COURT ☐ REFERRAL
☒ DETENTION
☐ PLACEMENT

PD 379 REV. 5/71 METROPOLITAN POLICE DEPARTMENT

1. RESPONDENT'S NAME (Last, First, Middle): DOE, John Nmn
3. NICKNAME OR ALIAS: "Curly"
5. ADDRESS: #000 Letter Street N.W. Apt. #1
7. SEX: M | RACE: W | DOB: 01-23-57 | BIRTHPLACE: Wash; D.C. | RELIGION: None
9. COMPLAINT: Marijuana Possession (1/2 oz.)
11. COMPLAINANT'S NAME
13. COMPLAINANT'S ADDRESS
15. DISPOSITION
16. DATE: 01-18-72 | 27. TIME: 1000 | 28. IS RLSE TO GDN. APPROVED? ☐ YES
30. GRADE: 10th | 31. ADDRESS: Parkway and Y Streets, N.W.

17. COMPLAINT DATE, TIME & PLACE: 00 J Street, N.W. 01-18-72, 0900 hours, Tues. | DIST. OF OCC.: 5D1
18. ARREST TIME & PLACE: 0915 hours, In front 100 J St. N.W.
19. FATHER'S NAME (Last, First, Middle): DOE, James Arthur
20. FATHER'S ADDRESS: #000 Letter St. N.W. | PHONE: 000-0000
21. MOTHER'S NAME (Last, First, Middle): DOE, Mary NMN | NEE NAME: SMITH
22. MOTHER'S ADDRESS: #000 Letter St. N.W. | PHONE: 000-0000
23. LIVING WITH: PARENTS
25. PARENT OR GUARDIAN NOTIFIED BY: Oficer John E. Friendly | HOW? | ADDRESS | PHONE
26. RESPONDENT'S OCCUPATION OR SCHOOL: Madison High School
STATEMENT OF FACTS: THE RESPONDENT ALONG WITH THE CO-RESPONDENT WERE OBSERVED ... MARIJUANA.

PENALTY PROVISIONS FOR POSSESSION OF MARIJUANA— FIRST OFFENSE*

Today's Education has adapted this table from data compiled by NORML, The National Organization for the Reform of Marijuana Laws, 1237 22nd St., N.W., Washington, DC 20037. The data have *not* been systematically updated since July 1, 1971. A more recent compilation will be included in the report on marijuana of the National Commission on Marijuana and Drug Abuse, which will be released to the White House and to Congress on March 22, 1972. The report will subsequently be for sale by the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, DC 20402.

The federal Controlled Substances Act of 1970 provides penalties of imprisonment for 0-1 year and/or a fine up to $5,000 for anyone convicted of simple possession of marijuana, first offense (a misdemeanor). Offenders may be tried under either the federal or the appropriate state statute, but never under both.

*All fines are represented as maximum amounts possible.

Alabama	0-1 year's imprisonment /$1,000 fine
Alaska	0-1 year and/or $1,000 or rehabilitation treatment by state for 1 year
Arizona	0-1 year in county jail and/or $1,000 or 1-10 years
Arkansas	0-1 year and/or $250
California	County jail for not more than 1 year or 1-10 years in prison
Colorado	Under ½ oz., 0-1 year and/or $500; over ½ oz., 2-15 years and/or $10,000
Connecticut	0-1 year and/or $1,000 or up to 3 years in custody of commissioner of mental health
Delaware	0-2 years and/or $500
Dist. of Columbia	0-1 year and/or $100-$1,000
Florida	Less than 5 grams, 0-1 year and/or $1,000; more than 5 grams, 0-2 years and/or $1,000
Georgia	Under 1 oz., 0-1 year and/or $1,000; over 1 oz., 0-2 years and/or $2,000
Hawaii	0-5 years
Idaho	0-6 months and/or $300
Illinois	Less than 2.5 grams, up to 90 days; 2.5-10 grams, up to 180 days; 10-30 grams, up to 1 year; 30-500 grams, 1-3 years; over 500 grams, 1-5 years
Indiana	Less than 25 grams, 0-6 months and/or $25-100; over this amount, 30 days to a year and/or $500
Iowa	0-6 months and/or $1,000
Kansas	0-1 year

Kentucky	0-1 year in mental health facility
Louisiana	0-1 year and/or $500
Maine	0-11 months and/or $1,000
Maryland	0-1 year and/or $1,000
Massachusetts	0-3½ years in prison, or 0-2½ years in jail and/or $1,000
Michigan	0-10 years and/or $5,000
Minnesota	Under 1.5 oz., 0-1 year and/or $1,000; over 1.5 oz., 0-3 years and/or $3,000
Mississippi	0-4 years and/or $2,000
Missouri	Under 35 grams, 0-1 year and/or $1,000; over this amount, 0-5 years and/or $1,000
Montana	Up to 60 grams, 0-1 year and/or $1,000; over this amount, 0-5 years
Nebraska	Up to 1 pound, 7 days in county jail (separate from other prisoners) and/or $500; over 1 pound, 0-6 months in county jail or 1 year in prison and/or $500
Nevada	If under 21 and less than 1 oz., 0-1 year and/or $1,000 and/or suspension of driver's license; if over 1 oz., 1-6 years and/or $2,000
New Hampshire	Less than 1 pound, 0-1 year and/or $500; over 1 pound, 0-5 years and/or $2,000
New Jersey	Under 25 grams, 0-6 months; over 25 grams, 0-5 years and/or $15,000
New Mexico	0-1 year in county jail and/or $1,000
New York	Less than 25 cigarettes or ¼ oz., up to 1 year; 25-99 cigarettes or ¼-1 oz., 1-7 years; over 100 cigarettes or 1 oz., 1-15 years
North Carolina	Less than 1 gram, misdemeanor with fine or imprisonment left to court; over 1 gram, 0-5 years and/or $1,000
North Dakota	0-1 year and/or $500
Ohio	0-1 year and/or $1,000
Oklahoma	0-1 year
Oregon	0-1 year in county jail and/or $5,000 or 0-10 years in prison and/or $5,000
Pennsylvania	2-5 years of separate or solitary confinement and/or $2,000
Rhode Island	0-10 years and $5,000
South Carolina	Under 1 oz., 0-3 months and/or $100; over this amount, 0-6 months and/or $1,000
South Dakota	Less than 1 oz., 0-1 year in county jail and/or $500; over 1 oz., 0-5 years and/or $5,000
Tennessee	Commitment to a state-operated drug treatment facility or community mental health center or, at the discretion of the court, up to 11 months, 29 days and/or $1,000
Texas	2 years to life
Utah	0-6 months and/or $299
Vermont	0-6 months and/or $500
Virginia	0-12 months and/or $1,000
Washington	Less than 40 grams, 30 days; over 40 grams, 0-5 years and/or $10,000
West Virginia	90 days-6 months and/or $1,000
Wisconsin	0-1 year in county jail and/or $500
Wyoming	0-6 months and/or $1,000

why I object so strongly to its being invoked against marijuana users, because the damage to society and, according to the evidence so far, to the child himself is usually really minimal. When you expose a child to the criminal process for this sort of thing, I think that, on balance, society loses. However, primarily because of the abuses which can occur, I think we are better off in formalizing the process with the hope that enough flexibility will remain to allow for careful handling of the individual situation.

What advice should parents give over the phone to a child who is being held by police?

The most important thing is to tell the child not to make any statements whatsoever. This is crucial. He can give his name and his address, but should say nothing else. When a child has been arrested, almost invariably he and/or other persons involved have made unwise self-incriminating statements before the lawyer enters the picture.

The point to remember is that a statement to the police will not bring about the child's immediate release and may only serve to worsen his predicament. I'm not saying that the truth should not be told or that it should be covered up. All I'm saying is that in a situation like this the fear and upset are so great that the child may say things which are greatly damaging to his own interests and which, in fact, are not true in the light of what actually happened.

An experienced police officer has a really big advantage when questioning a distraught person, and no statements should be made until a lawyer has been consulted. This is true even if the child was in fact not involved in the crime or act with which he is charged. It is important to realize that once an arrest has taken place, the police cannot simply release a person even in the case of an obvious mistaken identity, for example.

Is quick action by parents important?

It certainly is, and the first thing to do is to get a lawyer without delay. This is essential, regardless of how unnecessary it may seem. You may not understand the total situation and where things can lead. I have heard assurances given by police to youngsters and their parents which have turned out to be quite unfounded. Remember, you must consider not only the police officer who makes the arrest, but also the prosecutor, the judge, and the probation officer. Any one of these links in the chain can have a disastrous impact on your child's future life. That is why you should have legal advice from the very moment the arrest occurs to the very end of the process.

If possible, get a lawyer who has worked with children, because a child in trouble with the law is very different from an adult in the same situation. Parents, lawyers, and law enforcement officials should keep in mind that they are not only dealing with the act the child committed and the resultant legal process, but they are also dealing with what may be the total future attitude of that child toward our legal structure. It is of utmost importance that a child be treated fairly, because if his mind is poisoned against the legal system, then, it seems to me, both the child and the system have lost a great deal.

How does one go about getting a lawyer right away?

Securing a lawyer, particularly in the middle of the night, is very difficult. The best thing to do, of course, is to have a family lawyer just as you have a family doctor. If you do have one, call him and ask if he will take the case or if he would prefer to recommend a lawyer who is more familiar with criminal law and dealing with children in trouble.

If you have not had previous contact with a lawyer, the best thing that you can do is to get recommendations from a lawyers' reference service in your area. In most places, there is such a service. The bar associations in the state or city where you live will make legal advice available to you in some way.

If you are not able to secure a lawyer's help immediately, it is essential that you try to secure your child's release from the jail or police station. Sometimes you may be successful in having the child released in your custody pending court arraignment the next morning, and you should always strive to make this arrangement with the police. If the charge is serious enough, bail may be required.

How can an arrested child and his parents best cooperate with a lawyer?

By disclosing everything. By keeping nothing back. The worst thing that can happen in court is for the defense lawyer to be surprised. This is not the time for making your own judgments as to what is or is not important for your lawyer to know. Even if you have information that your child did that which he is charged with, there may well be mitigating factors which come to light when the case is presented at the disposition or sentencing stage. Also, it is up to the prosecution to prove beyond a reasonable doubt that that act was committed by your youngster. So give your lawyer all the information at your command and let him take it from there.

If a parent cannot afford a lawyer, how much can he count on a court-appointed one?

Court-appointed lawyers often have to handle as many as 700 cases a year. No one can possibly handle a caseload as heavy as that with complete effectiveness. That's why if you can possibly afford your own lawyer, get one. If you can't, take the court-appointed one, but by all means keep after him to make sure that your child gets the attention he so desperately needs.

Most states now have a legal defender system that is available to children as well as adults. It is set up on a regular, formalized basis instead of the way it used to be when the judge would just pick a lawyer out of the courtroom. Institutionalized help of this nature has obvious limitations because of the sheer number of cases, but in many areas it is a distinct improvement.

There are minimum fees for lawyers and, of course, in situations where the person has little money, the lawyer will usually modify his charges accordingly. Incidentally, in criminal work, a lawyer almost always insists on his fee in advance, so don't be surprised when the request is made.

What attitude should the parents take toward the child who has been arrested?

The classic reaction of anger is extremely nonproductive. After a child has been arrested and gone through what is a tremendously traumatic experience for him, the worst thing is to have his parents turn against him. He's just experienced about the most severe anger that society can express against someone, that is, utterly and completely taking away his personal liberty, so it seems to me that this is the moment when parents should show as much compassion as they can, no matter how difficult it may be.

Another common reaction is that of denial—the parent simply refuses to believe that his or her child could have done such a thing or even been involved in such a situation.

Another typical reaction is that of guilt—the parent immediately searches his mind for what he has done wrong to bring about this event.

None of the above are very much help to the situation at hand. What is called for first and foremost is compassion and sensitivity to the needs of the youngster; next comes the need for cool and rational reflection on just what has occurred and an attempt to help things along rather than impede the process by anger, denial, or guilt.

If the mother and father are available, should both of them go to where the child is being held?

I'd say yes for two reasons. First, such action shows law enforcement officials the parents' immediate interest in the child. This is important to the police, to judges, and to prosecutors. Whenever possible, I also have both parents present at the trial even though it may mean their coming in from another state. Second, they should go for the child's sake. When he's in serious trouble is the time he probably most needs the moral support of both parents. There may be cases where this is not true, but it usually is.

What information, if any, should a parent give the police?

It's better to give no information until your lawyer arrives. If your child has never been in trouble before, you might make this known to the police, but my philosophy is that the less said before the lawyer arrives, the better.

Can a parent ask information from police? For example, can he ask directly what the charges are and the circumstances surrounding the arrest? Should he make notes and get exact wording on this?

He certainly can and should. Many people seem to think that the process of interrogation only goes one way—from the police to them—but the process should go both ways. You are entitled to know the charges against your child. The police also ought to tell you the circumstances of these charges, although they are only required to tell you the time, date of arrest, and the charges. At any rate, you should try to get as much information as possible and make careful notes, because knowing everything that occurred will be of legal assistance whether you think so or not.

You should also carefully note the circumstances under which your child is held: Does he appear bruised or beaten? If so, ask how he sustained these injuries and insist that he get any medical assistance which you think he needs.

Should parents try to get the child out of jail as soon as possible?

By all means. There's nothing more degrading, more dehumanizing, than to be put in a cage, and this is why it is so essential for the child to be released in your custody or bailed out as quickly as possible. If you are not permitted to see your child, get legal assistance immediately to find out why.

How does one go about arranging for bail?

The way you arrange for bail is usually to ask the police officer in charge how to get your child bailed. A list of bondsmen is posted at each police station, and the officer in charge will tell you how to call and whom to call. Unless your child has committed the most serious of crimes, such as murder, the police should release him on bail without question. It is my opinion that a child should be bailed immediately, whenever possible.

Many states provide for a segregation of children from adults regardless of where they are held, but, even so, the sooner the child is out of the police station the better it will be all around. A bondsman usually charges between 5 to 10 percent of the total amount of the bail.

What if a child seems to his parents to be obviously guilty as charged?

You should never attempt to make such a determination. The legal question, "What is guilt?" is complex. The state must always prove guilt beyond a reasonable doubt, and the burden is on them to do so. So never assume that your child is guilty—at least for the purposes of the law.

He may be exonerated by a good lawyer, although in fact he committed the act. This happens many times. In such a situation, you may want to exercise your own disciplinary measures because it is unhealthy for a child who has committed an illegal act to go scot-free even though that is the short-term goal as far as the court procedures and legal processes go.

Whenever I do get a child exonerated, I feel it's my responsibility to the child and to the parents to explain how close he came to disaster and to emphasize why it is so important for him not to become involved again because things will almost certainly not turn out as well a second time. If he did not commit the act and became involved only circumstantially or because of mistaken identity, for example, then we

can be pleased that it ended well. If he did commit the act and is exonerated, we all have an obligation to make certain that the youngster does not feel he can commit crimes and "get away with it" or that he can "beat the system."

What if a child is arrested but he is innocent, as has been the case with onlookers during a demonstration?

Innocent or not, the most important thing is to get a lawyer as quickly as possible. Protestations of innocence to the police almost invariably have no effect. The police know that if they release a person they have arrested, they may be opening themselves up to a suit of false arrest. That's why I advise parents to sign a waiver of such a suit if police offer them the chance, as it's well worth it to get their child home as quickly as possible.

Should parents follow a different procedure if their child is one of a group that has been arrested?

Whenever possible, I sever the child and his case from the group as quickly as possible. The group process in these situations tends to be an unhealthy one. The best advice I can give here is for the child to be treated as an individual, and except in unusual circumstances, not even to have the same lawyer as the total group.

If one lawyer represents 10 kids, there is a substantial risk that they may stand or fall together. Whenever possible, it's best to have someone who is accountable to you and to your child alone.

Will procedures be the same or different if a child is arrested in a city away from home?

In most cases, the procedures are pretty much the same. If he is arrested in a city far from home, I hope you have a friend or relative there. It will make a big difference if there is someone who can act as a substitute parent and take the steps we have discussed which you would take if you were there.

If a child is found guilty of a felony, what will probably happen to him?

If the child is 17 or under, he will not be sent to a jail. In most states, he will be sent to a youth service facility or a youth correction facility, and although these places are not called jails, don't be misled. They *are* jails, and in many cases, they are worse than jails. I just find it unbelievable the way children are treated in our society today. My feeling is that unless a child is going to be totally and completely destructive, that child is best kept somehow within society.

Euphemisms, such as "youth detention centers" or "rehabilitative schools," are just that—euphemisms.

How do procedures differ for persons under 18 and those 18 or over?

In most states, individuals who are age 17 and under receive juvenile treatment. People over age 17 are treated as adult criminals and go into the adult criminal court. The procedures differ. For example, in some states, if the defendant is under 18, his name is not released to the newspapers, and the records are supposedly sealed.

What are the long-term effects of a jail record in the education, career, and civil rights of an individual?

A jail record can virtually ruin a young person's life. In fact, if he is convicted, this will haunt him for years even though he does not go to jail. If it's a felony conviction, as it is in the case of drug possession in so many states, he may have the sentence suspended. Even so, from that point on, he will be at a serious disadvantage in getting an education, in getting a job, in following a career.

When a young person has to answer "Yes" to the question, "Have you ever been convicted of a felony?" this may disqualify him from reaching many later goals. He may not be able to become a lawyer or a doctor, to give just two examples.

Once someone has been so marked, the effects are more or less permanent, unfair as this may be.

What should parents do if they learn from school officials, other parents, or friends that their child has a drug problem?

The most important thing is to deal with the problem insofar as possible within your family unit, seeking professional counseling, if necessary, to help you deal with the problem. The police should not be informed by the school officials or by you, unless you can be absolutely certain that (a) there is no other alternative and (b) they will deal with the situation in a manner other than bringing the criminal law to bear against your child. There are other resources in your community—a mental health center, a drop-in center, or a hot line which can put you in touch with someone or some place that will help you.

Remember, the police are sworn to uphold the law; in the case of drugs, we have mistakenly put far too much emphasis on the criminal law, particularly in the kind of drug scene in which young people tend to be involved. On occasion, police officers will use discretion and not invoke the law; instead, they will make use of their authority to help parents deal with a child. Don't approach the police unless you can be certain that this is the way they will respond.

What if a parent finds marijuana, heroin, or some other drug on his child's person or if his child or someone else gives him such a substance?

The fact that you find or are given a substance which appears to be or is said to be marijuana or some other substance does not necessarily mean that it is in fact that substance. You are not a chemist and there is no obligation on you to secure a chemical analysis. In most situations, the best thing is to permanently dispose of the substance as quickly as possible. Because of the lack of positive identification of the substance, there is no obligation on you to inform the police.

What is far more important than worrying about whether or not a crime has been committed is determining whether or not your child had the substance in his possession and if so, why. You have an obligation to explain to him that the legal consequences of his act may be very severe in many states [see the chart on the preceding pages], and if the possession appears reflective of something more serious than experimentation with marijuana because of peer pressure, for example, you have a most important obligation to see that he gets help from a qualified person within your community. □

Teaching English to Mexican American Pupils

HUBERTA SCHMELTER, *sixth grade teacher, Fremont School, Delano, California.*

□ **I felt fortunate last school year when I accidentally** stumbled onto an activity that proved to be a valuable tool in developing the English writing and reading abilities of my Mexican American sixth graders. (Many of these children come from homes where only Spanish is spoken.)

While thumbing through a stack of old coloring books, I noticed a number of clever pirate cartoons that might help stimulate an interest in writing. I mimeographed enough copies of each picture for all the children to have one and then suggested that they make up stories, using whatever pictures they needed for illustrations.

Before we started writing, we did research on buccaneers and made a list of words that might be used in a pirate story. This made the children eager to get started on the project. Mike, a small 11-year-old, was the first to finish. As he had been a bored and restless pupil, his great interest in this project was particularly gratifying. The originality of his story surprised me, and on an impulse I took it home and typed it so that the story appeared with the illustrations. A colorful folder decorated with a pirate picture served as a cover for this "book."

As soon as the other children saw Mike's book, they speeded up their own efforts. Having unwittingly trapped myself, I now had no choice but to type dozens of stories for these proud young authors who eagerly wrote, read, and shared their books with their classmates.

A few weeks later, we got started on a writing spree that carried us through the rest of the school year. One day Mike told me he had finished three pirate stories and wanted new pictures to write about. Picking up a coloring book, I tore out some pictures that could be assembled into a story about space.

Mike went right to work, and before long his best friend, Louie, indicated that he also wanted "a piece of the action." More than eager to accommodate this youngster, who at the age of 11 could be considered a potential dropout, I hurriedly gave him some illustrations. This launched Louie on a "literary career" that kept him interested in school and brought him more recognition than he had ever received before.

When the two boys had finished their stories, I typed up their books and enclosed them in attractive folders with clever cartoons mounted on each cover. From the moment Mike and Louie presented their newest achievements to the class, the other children in the class besieged me with requests for similar story material.

Even though our writing was done on a voluntary basis, every child participated. As soon as an author completed a book, he gave a résumé of its contents to the class. As he introduced and explained the new words in his story, the children added them to their vocabulary lists.

At first, I worked with the children individually and gave them all the help they needed. As for writing proficiency, I demanded only those skills they could manage comfortably. When the youngsters showed definite signs of improvement, I gave less help and demanded more accuracy.

The highlight of the project was an experiment in which several of my boys became involved with a first grade class. The children in my group had been going into many of the fourth and fifth grades to read the books they had written.

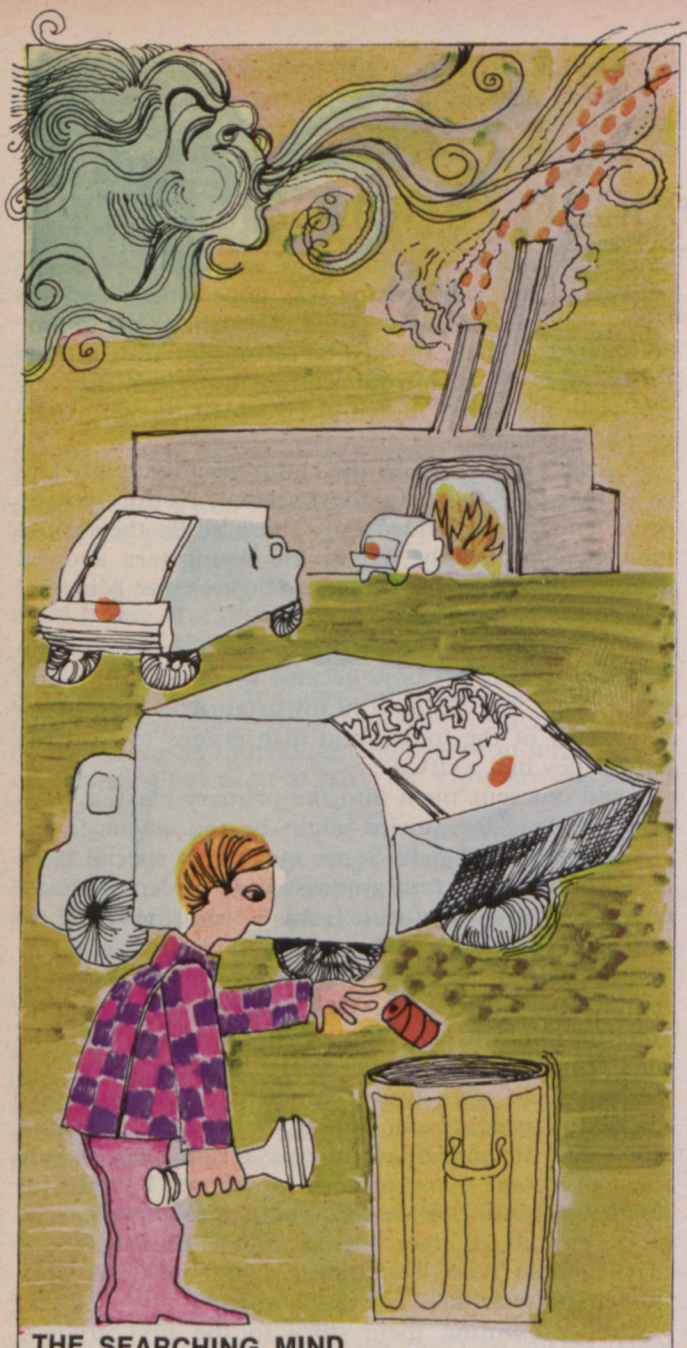
I had not sent them into the primary classes, however, for fear the stories might be too advanced for younger boys and girls. So we made up a special story based on material first graders could understand and cut some large pictures from a coloring book to illustrate the plot. We mounted each picture on poster board, and on the back pasted the part of the story that fit the illustration. This enabled the reader to hold the pictures in front of his audience while he read from the back of the poster board.

Since there were four characters in the story, we decided to dramatize it. Hoping that the excitement of being able to participate in this activity would help them overcome some of their problems, I chose for this project four boys whose reading problems seemed more emotional than mental. They obviously felt privileged to have been selected and went to work immediately on their new assignment.

After presenting their story to the first graders, the four boys were to teach their parts to four first graders who would in turn perform the story for us. When the four from my class acted out the story for the first graders, they were warmly received. Then the boys began to tutor four little first graders in their parts, concentrating on pronunciation, expression, and story sequence.

D-Day finally arrived, and my boys came into our class holding their tiny pupils by the hand. Our principal filmed this segment of the experiment, and the first graders read beautifully despite the whirring movie camera.

The boys and girls involved in this program were thrilled by their success. I have never ceased to be amazed at how children can overcome their problems and fulfill their responsibilities when they realize their teachers trust them and consider them capable. □



THE SEARCHING MIND

Breaking the Laws of Ecology

BARRY COMMONER, *director, Center for the Biology of Natural Systems, Washington University, St. Louis.*

□ **Several billion years ago, in the earth's thin skin** of air, water, and soil and in the radiant solar fire that bathes it, life appeared and was nourished by the earth's substance. As life evolved, its old forms transformed the earth's skin and new ones adapted to these changes. Living things multiplied in number, variety, and habitat until they formed a global network, becoming enmeshed in the surroundings they had themselves created. This is the *ecosphere,* the home that life has built for itself on the planet's outer surface.

Any living thing that hopes to live on the earth must fit into the ecosphere or perish. Those things that fail to fit are threats to the ecosphere's finely balanced cycles, for in the ecosphere every effect is also a cause.

The behavior of the three great global ecosystems—the air, the water, and the soil—is governed by environmental cycles. Within each system are many thousands of different species of living things. Each species is suited to its particular environmental niche and each, through its life processes, affects the physical and chemical properties of its immediate environment. Each living species is also linked to many others. And these links are bewildering in their variety and marvelous in their intricate detail.

The science that studies these relationships and the processes linking each living thing to the physical and chemical environment is *ecology*—the science of planetary housekeeping. Though this science is young, there are, nevertheless, a number of generalizations that are already evident in what we now know about the ecosphere and that can be organized into a kind of informal set of four "laws of ecology."

1. *Everything is connected to everything else.* This generalization reflects the existence of the elaborate network of interconnections in the ecosphere—among different living organisms, and between populations, species, and individual organisms and their physicochemical surroundings.

The single fact that an ecosystem consists of multiple interconnected parts that act on one another has some surprising consequences. If an entire cyclical system is to remain in balance, the overall rate of turnover must be governed by the slowest step. The rates of the separate processes in the cycle are in a natural state of balance that is maintained only so long as there are no external intrusions on the system. When such an effect originates outside the cycle, it is not controlled by the self-governing cyclical relations and is a threat to the stability of the whole system. Any external effect that forces part of the cycle to operate faster than the overall rate leads to trouble.

Ecosystems differ considerably in their rate characteristics and therefore vary a great deal in the speed with which they react to changed situations or approach the point of collapse. Aquatic ecosystems, for instance, turn over much faster than soil ecosystems. Thus, an acre of richly populated marine shoreline or an acre of fish pond produces about seven times as much organic material as an acre of alfalfa annually. The slow turnover of the soil cycle is due to the rather low rate of one of its many steps—the

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release of nutrient from the soil's organic store, which is very much slower than the comparable step in aquatic systems.

The amount of stress an ecosystem can absorb before it is driven to collapse is also a result of its various interconnections and their relative speeds of response. The more complex the ecosystem, the more successfully it can resist a stress. For example, in the rabbit-lynx system, if lynxes had an alternative source of food, they might survive the sudden depletion of rabbits. In this way, branching, which establishes alternative pathways, increases the resistance of an ecosystem to stress.

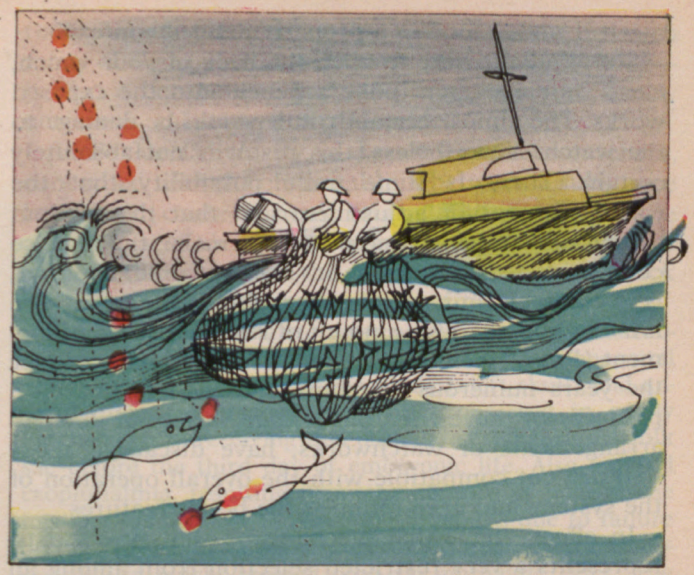
Most ecosystems are so complex that the cycles are not simple circular paths but are crisscrossed with branches to form a network or a fabric of interconnections. Like a net in which each knot is connected to others by several strands, such a fabric can resist collapse better than an unbranched circle of threads.

The feedback characteristics of ecosystems result in amplification and intensification processes of considerable magnitude. Take the fact that in food chains small organisms are eaten by bigger ones and the latter by still bigger ones; inevitably this results in the concentration of certain environmental constituents in the bodies of the largest organisms at the top of the food chain. Any nonmetabolized material present in the lower organisms of this chain will become concentrated in the body of the top one. Thus, if the concentration of DDT (which is not readily metabolized) in the soil is 1 unit, earthworms in the soil will achieve a concentration of from 10 to 40 units; woodcocks feeding on the earthworms, about 200 units.

Ecosystems are stabilized by their dynamic self-compensating properties. These same properties, if overstressed, can lead to a dramatic collapse. The complexity of an ecological network and its rate of turnover determine how much it can be stressed, and for how long, without collapsing. The network is an amplifier, so that a small perturbation in one place may have large, distant, long-delayed effects.

2. *Everything must go somewhere.* In nature there is no such thing as "waste." Animals release carbon dioxide as a respiratory waste, an essential nutrient for green plants. Plants excrete oxygen, which is used by animals. Animal organic wastes nourish the bacteria of decay. Their wastes—inorganic materials, such as nitrate, phosphate, and carbon dioxide—become algal nutrients.

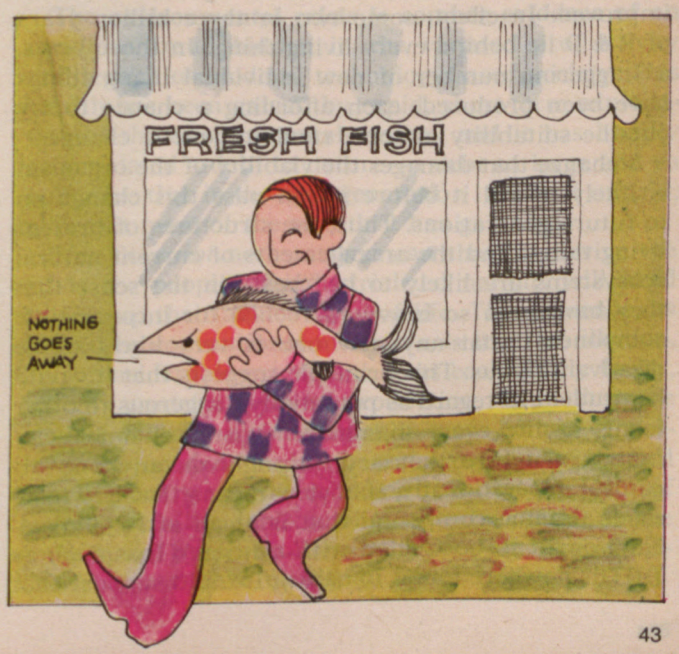
A persistent effort to discover where a substance goes can yield a surprising amount of valuable information about an ecosystem. Consider the fate of a household item that contains mercury. A dry-cell battery containing mercury is used to the point of exhaustion and then thrown into a container of rubbish. Where does it go from there? First it is collected with the rubbish and put in an incinerator. Here the mercury is heated, and its vapor is emitted by the incinerator stack. Mercury vapor, which is toxic, is carried



by the wind and eventually brought to earth in rain or snow; entering, say, a mountain lake, where it condenses and sinks to the bottom. Here it is acted on by bacteria that convert it to methyl mercury, which is soluble. Fish take up this mercury and, since it is not metabolized, accumulate it in their organs and flesh. Men catch and eat the fish, and the mercury becomes deposited in their organs, where it might be harmful. And so on.

This effective way of tracing out an ecological path is also an excellent way to counteract the prevalent notion that something regarded as useless simply goes away when it is discarded. Nothing "goes away"; it is simply transferred from place to place, converted from one molecular form to another, acting on the life processes of any organism in which it becomes, for a time, lodged.

3. *Nature knows best.* Any major man-made change in a natural system is likely to be detrimental to that system. This rather extreme claim has a good deal of



merit if understood in a properly defined context.

Suppose you were to open the back of your watch, close your eyes, and poke a pencil into the exposed works. The almost certain result would be damage to the watch. Nevertheless, this result is not absolutely certain. There is some finite possibility that the watch was out of adjustment and that the random thrust of the pencil happened to make the precise change needed to improve it. This outcome, however, is exceedingly improbable. And that is because there is a very considerable amount of research and development (R & D) behind the watch. This means that over the years numerous watchmakers, each taught by a predecessor, have tried out a huge variety of detailed arrangements of watchworks, have discarded those that are not compatible with the overall operation of the system, and have retained the better features.

In effect, the watch mechanism, as it now exists, represents a very restricted selection from among an enormous variety of possible arrangements of component parts. Any random change made in the watch is likely to fall into the very large class of inconsistent or harmful arrangements tried out in past watchmaking experience and discarded.

There is a close and very meaningful analogy in biological systems. We can induce a certain range of random, inherited changes in a living thing by treating it with an agent, such as X-irradiation, that increases the frequency of mutations. Generally, exposure to X rays increases the frequency of all mutations that we have observed (albeit very infrequently) in nature and can therefore regard as *possible* changes. What is significant is the universal observation that when mutation frequency is enhanced by X rays or other means, nearly all the mutations are harmful to the organisms and the great majority are so damaging as to kill the organisms before they are fully formed.

In other words, like the watch, a living organism that is forced to sustain a random change in its organization is almost certain to be damaged rather than improved. In effect, some two or three billion years of R & D lie behind every living thing. In those years, a staggering number of new individual living things have been produced, each affording a chance to try out the suitability of some random genetic change.

A change that damages the viability of the organism is likely to kill it before it can pass this change on to future generations. Thus, the structures of present living things and the arrangements of current natural ecosystems are likely to be "best" in the sense that they have been so heavily screened for incompatible components that any new one is very likely to be disadvantageous. This principle suggests that it would be prudent to regard as potentially dangerous to other forms of life every man-made organic chemical *not* found in nature that acts strongly on any one organism. Operationally, this view means that any man-made organic compound that is at all active biologically ought to be treated with caution. (Inasmuch as DDT is nowhere found in nature I would suppose that somewhere, at some time in the past, some unfortunate cell synthesized this molecule—and died.)

4. *There is no such thing as a free lunch.* This ecological law is intended to warn that every gain is won at some cost. Because the global ecosystem is a connected whole that is not subject to overall improvement and in which nothing can be gained or lost, anything extracted from it by human effort must be replaced. We cannot avoid paying this price. Every environmental incursion, whatever its benefits, has a cost. Sooner or later, every human endeavor—if it is to continue—must pass this simple test: Is it worth what it costs?

The paradigm of the enormous benefits of modern technology is the automobile. Once out of the factory, however, and into the environment, it reveals itself as an agent that renders urban air pathogenic and that burdens human bodies with nearly toxic levels of carbon monoxide and lead. Air pollution is not merely a nuisance and a threat to health. It is a reminder that our most celebrated technological achievements—the automobile, the jet plane, the power plant, and industry in general—are, in the environment, failures.

In the life of man in the ecosphere, the first great fault is that we have broken out of the circle of life, converting its endless cycles into man-made, linear events: We take oil from the ground, distill it into fuel, burn it in engines, thereby converting it into noxious fumes that are emitted into the air. At the end of the line is smog. Other man-made breaks in the ecosphere's cycles spew out toxic chemicals, sewage, heaps of rubbish—testimony to our power to tear the ecological fabric that has, for millions of years, sustained the planet's life.

Our experience with nuclear power tells us that modern technology has achieved a scale and intensity that begin to match that of the global system in which we live. Our capability to intrude on the environment far outstrips our knowledge of the consequences. So often, new effects are set in motion long before we are aware that a problem exists. We must therefore expect the unexpected in environmental pollution. Consider the following sequence of events.

In the 1950's, the plastics industry developed new types of flexible, synthetic materials—polyvinyl plastics—with good wearing properties. Within a decade the interior of nearly every American car contained yards of the new plastic. Many people have noticed on entering a plastic-upholstered car which has had its windows closed for a day or so, especially in the summer heat, that the steering wheel is slippery and that the inner window surfaces are coated with a slippery, transparent film. Car drivers have uncomplainingly tolerated this effect for a number of years. But in a space capsule, matters are less relaxed. NASA technicians noticed the same effect but took it seriously. Because the film spoiled the efficiency of optical equipment, NASA barred the use of polyvinyl plastics

in space equipment about five years ago.

Now the scene shifts to hospital blood banks. There, glass equipment that was used to store and transfuse blood and other fluids was replaced by polyvinyl equipment about 10 years ago—an apparently advantageous step, for the new equipment, unlike the old, was unbreakable.

The scene shifts again, this time to military hospitals in Vietnam, where the new plastic transfusion equipment is in extensive use. Here in the last few years a new, sometimes fatal, disorder, "shock lung," is noticed in the wounded after transfusions, especially of long-stored blood. The effect was reported in medical journals in 1959 but was not related to the transfusion process.

Now it is 1970. At the Carnegie Institution's embryology laboratory in Baltimore, Dr. Robert De Haan finds that cultures of embryonic chick heart cells, which he has studied successfully for some time, are mysteriously dying. After some effort he discovers the cause: Toxic material is leaching out of polyvinyl containers into his culture medium, killing the cells. He soon informs a colleague, Dr. Robert J. Rubin of the Johns Hopkins Hospital, of this finding. Dr. Rubin is concerned because this same material may be leaching from polyvinyl blood transfusion equipment; and his studies confirm this expectation.

Material designed to make the polyvinyl plastic flexible, and incorporated into it in the manufacturing process, readily enters the stored blood. Dr. Rubin finds the plasticizer and its metabolic breakdown products in the blood, urine, and tissues of patients receiving blood that has been stored in polyvinyl bags. He finds, too, that the plasticizer causes blood platelets to become sticky and clot—a condition that probably explains shock lung.

All this appears in a scientific journal in October 1970. The report points out that the authors' results may account for the earlier observation of plasticizers in some foods, which are often packaged in polyvinyl-coated containers. One report attracts the attention of a chemist at NASA, who was formerly with the U.S. Food and Drug Administration and who had been working on the spaceship plasticizer problem. He telephones Dr. Rubin and points out that human exposure to plasticizers is not limited to blood transfusions or to plastic-packaged foods but includes as well the air that many car passengers breathe.

Meanwhile, back in the scientific journals, now that the issue has been raised, one can find earlier studies showing the plastics contain not only plasticizers having toxic effects but also other additives, known as "stabilizers," which are usually even more hazardous.

Now that the alarm has been sounded, researchers are busy studying the toxic effects of the numerous varieties of stabilizers and plasticizers used in modern plastics. Scientific results already show that the effects may be subtle and slow to appear. For example, some of the materials have significant effects on cell growth. And lurking in the background is the potentially ominous fact that the basic material used in many of these plastic additives—phthalic anhydride—is also a constituent part of the molecule of a now notorious substance: thalidomide.

At Baylor University in Texas several researchers, concerned with the chemical link between a substance known to cause serious fetal deformities and the phthalic acid derivatives used as plasticizers, have studied the effects of the latter on developing chick embryos. Here is their summary of the results:

> Dibutoxyethyl phthalate was capable of causing teratogenesis [embryonic defects] in these embryos. Congenital malformations, such as crania bifida [cleft skull] and anophthalmia [malformed eye], were observed in newly hatched chicks receiving this phthalate ester into the yolk sac before the third day of embryonic life. Also marked exophthalmia, resulting from the absence of bone tissue forming the orbit of the eye, and blindness due to failure of the cornea to develop were other malformations observable in chicks treated with the phthalate ester. The data suggested that dibutoxyethyl phthalate, di-2-methoxyethyl phthalate and octyl isodecyl phthalate are capable of causing damage to the central nervous system of the developing chick embryo. . . .

What is the point of this story? I do *not* report it in order to suggest that we are all about to perish from exposure to plastic automobile upholstery. All that can be said at this time about the hazard to health is that there may be one.

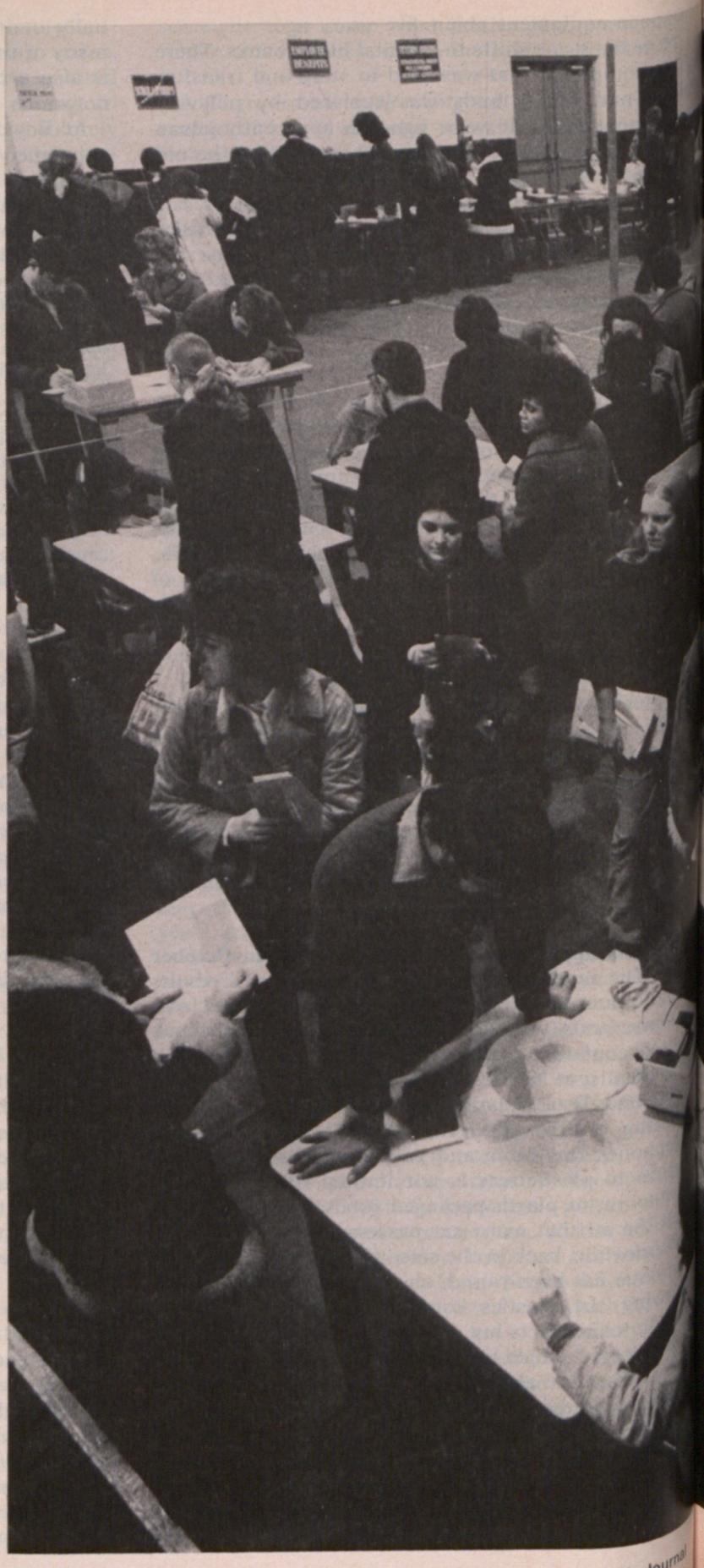
What our experience with the plasticizer problem reveals is something much more serious than the harm it might engender. It reminds us of our ignorance—that we are hardly aware of the potential hazards from hundreds of similar substances that have so quickly become ubiquitous in our environment. It warns us that the blind, ecologically mindless progress of technology has massively altered our daily environment in ways that may, much later, emerge as a threat to health. Unwittingly, we have created a new and dangerous world. We would be wise to move through it as though our lives were at stake.

The environmental crisis is somber evidence of an invidious fraud hidden in the vaunted productivity and wealth of modern, technology-based society. This wealth has been gained by rapid, short-term exploitation of the environmental system, and it has blindly accumulated a debt to nature—a debt so large and so pervasive that in the next generation it may, if unpaid, wipe out most of the wealth it has gained us.

This does *not* necessarily mean that to survive the crisis the people of industrialized nations will need to give up their affluent way of life. This affluence, as judged by conventional measures, is itself an illusion. To a considerable extent it reflects ecologically faulty, socially wasteful types of production rather than the actual welfare of individual human beings. Therefore, the needed productive reforms can be carried out without seriously reducing the present level of *useful* goods available to the individual. And, at the same time, by controlling pollution, we can significantly improve the quality of life. □

OPINIONS DIFFER

College Education for All?



BELLE ZELLER, *professor of political science, Brooklyn College of the City University of New York (CUNY). Dr. Zeller is chairman of the Legislative Conference, the NEA-affiliated bargaining agent for full-time instructional staff of CUNY, and vice-president, National Society of Professors, NEA.*

□ **Should everyone be given the opportunity to get** a college education? Most Americans, I believe, would readily answer, "Yes!" But what kind and how much of a college education? And at what price?

The impulse that leads us to favor universal higher education is the same one that generated free elementary and secondary education. It is the egalitarian motive behind the Morrill Act of 1862 which actually paved the way for universal higher education by establishing the land grant colleges. But a century after the Morrill Act, we know that equally capable affluent and poor youth do not have equal access to college. Among the top high school graduates, only 5 out of 10 in the lowest socioeconomic bracket go to college compared with 9 out of 10 in the highest socioeconomic bracket.

For various reasons, more than 40 percent of all high school graduates do not continue their schooling. Half a million high school graduates do not go to college each year simply because none is accessible to them. Others cannot forgo needed earnings to attend school. Still others drop out of high school or graduate with inadequate preparation for college.

We deplore these inequities. But do we really want to redress them?

We can approach answers to this question and assess the prospects by looking closely at the nation's most ambitious experiments in universal higher education in California and in New York City.

The City University of New York (CUNY) initiated its open-admissions program in September 1970.

The program guaranteed every high school graduate, academic or vocational, a tuition-free place in a city college. If he finished in the top half of his class or had an average of 80 or above, he was assured entry into one of eight senior colleges. Otherwise, he could enter one of seven community colleges. Geographical access was assured by the subway system.

Thirty-five thousand freshmen entered the University in 1970, an increase of 15,000 over the year before. In all, 76 percent of the city's high school graduates enrolled as full-time college students in a postsecondary institution in September 1970. This compares with national college attendance estimates of 55 percent to 60 percent. All of the difference between New York City and national rates can be attributed to the Open Admissions Policy of the City University. In 1971, 40,000 more freshmen enrolled.

How could we assimilate these numbers into the mainstream of the collegiate experience without diluting that experience? The task was staggering. About 3 out of 5 freshmen came to CUNY with high school averages under 80. Half of all freshmen re-

quired remedial reading and remedial mathematics. About 3,000 were reading below the ninth-grade level, and more than 7,000 were unable to do mathematics above the eighth-grade level.

Remediation was identified as the key to success. The city Board of Higher Education committed itself to making every effort "to provide the remedial and supportive components to prevent the open door from becoming a revolving door." Massive remediation was planned, plus sophisticated support services, such as peer counseling, drug-abuse programs, and sensitivity training to bolster student motivation and to teach teachers how to bolster student motivation.

But the commitment proved more theoretical than actual, partly because the open-admissions inauguration date was pushed up five years and partly because of the severe budget squeeze. Remedial courses were overcrowded and undernourished the first year (one community college had none), and this year they have increased in size by 50 percent.

More basic accommodations failed to materialize. At the community colleges, where most open-admissions students are found, we have come down to 76 square feet of space per student—less than half of what the state considers minimally adequate.

The overriding fact is that the state underfunded the University by $80 million. Now we are under a system-wide edict to increase instructional "productivity" by 10 percent. "Productivity" may be defined, quantitatively, as "cost per hour of instruction." This definition makes no concessions to maintaining the quality of instruction in general or to the particular needs of open-admissions students for intensive individualized instruction.

The returns are not yet in, of course, after only one year. The few indices we do have thus far may be interpreted as marks of success or failure, as you please. We could point out, for example, that half our remedial students succeeded in attaining tenth-grade levels in math and reading after one semester. Or we could say that half of them failed to attain tenth-grade levels.

About 10,000 freshmen dropped out of college after the first year. One is tempted to share the optimism of CUNY Chancellor Robert J. Kibbee, who observed, "I have to look at the class being 71 percent full after the first year rather than 29 percent empty." After all, the attrition rate is below the national average and only slightly higher than CUNY's rate in the preceding year.

On the other hand, none of the 10,000 freshmen were dropped out for academic reasons. The University's policy is to give freshmen a one-year grace period. No one was dismissed.

How many will be "cooled out" in June when the grace period is over? How many have "passed" courses only because of inordinately generous grading standards? What is the effect of open admissions on the University's standards and on its other programs?

One faculty member wrote me: "To keep faith with our promise to these kids—that we'd give them a fair chance to make it in college instead of cynically proving to them that they can't—we're watering down our standards. Out of guilt for not teaching them properly (23 in a remedial English course!), we're keeping them in college artificially. And while the rest of the University is going down the tubes, we're fulfilling Spiro Agnew's prophecy—'trading away one of the intellectual assets of the Western world for a four-year community college and 100,000 devalued diplomas.'"

This picture may be overly gloomy, but it is true that the proportion of high achievers entering CUNY has dropped. New educational programs, the yeast of academic progress, have been frozen. And the graduate program is threatened.

The faculty, which threw itself wholeheartedly into the open-admissions program, is becoming demoralized by the obstacles in its path. And more and more students who have displayed remarkable patience with those obstacles are telling me of their growing suspicion that open admissions is a fraud.

While it may be premature to make final judgments about CUNY after only one year, we can perhaps anticipate our future by looking at what has happened in California.

California's open enrollment system is similar to CUNY's, but older. The 1960 master plan codified a state system of universal higher education that has been developing since 1910 when the first public junior college was opened in Fresno.

California admits to college nearly everyone who has graduated from high school but it sorts and separates them into three tiers instead of two as at CUNY.

High school graduates in the top eighth of their class may attend a University of California campus. Those in the top third qualify for a state college. All the rest may attend a two-year junior college. There, they may take a terminal course leading to an associate degree in a vocational field or an academic course which, with a C average, is transferable to a state college or university.

Geographical access is more of a problem in California than in New York City, since underprivileged youth may not be within commuting distance of a college and may not have a vehicle to get there. Yet by the late 1960's, 68 percent of California's high school graduates were entering college, almost the rate in New York City in 1970. But almost a decade after the master plan had been established, only 46 percent of California's freshmen continued in college beyond one year. Only about one-fourth succeeded in earning a bachelor's degree. And fewer survived four years of college than in other parts of the country where enrollment was less open.

Again, remediation is the key. California does offer such programs and, in some cases, subremedial courses to prepare scholastically handicapped students for remedial courses. But the inadequacy of

these programs betrays the total design, which is more suited to convince students that they don't have "what it takes" than to *give* them what it takes to succeed in college. The only significant difference from New York City's approach to remediation is that California is more candid about the limitations of its remedial program.

These are the crucial questions raised by the experience of both states:

- Is the door really open for the most underprivileged, economically and scholastically? Ethnic minorities and the poor have entered in larger numbers than ever before. Yet many more whites have been the beneficiaries of the open door in both states than the minorities who prodded it open. Neither state accommodates those who dropped out of high school and those who cannot forgo earnings to go to college.
- Why do students drop out? Academic sanctions prevail in California and will be applied at CUNY. But 10,000 freshmen dropped out of CUNY after one year for other reasons, some of which we can do nothing about, such as marriage, childbirth, and military obligations. Many dropped out for reasons that perhaps we *can* do something about: lack of interest and low self-esteem, for example.
- How far do we want to go to stimulate motivation for higher education? The question ultimately involves values, goals, and commitments. We must ask—of students, of educators, of society: What are the relative values of particular fields of study in higher education? What are the goals of universal higher education? Finally, what kinds of commitments must be made to achieve these goals?
- Can secondary schools do a better job preparing students for college—and do it more economically? Could they, or should they, for example, assume some of the burdens of remedial or preparatory education now assumed by community colleges?
- What kinds of programs can best serve the needs of students and society under open admissions? Can we devise such programs, restyle existing ones, create new ones, and, perhaps, considering the number of dropouts, fashion a course of study to yield results after a semester or two? All this is only part of the pressing need to rethink our overall purposes and goals and to refashion our curriculums for greater relevance—for all college students.

Can quality higher education coexist with equality of access? As a "credential," the college degree has already been devalued. Can its substantive value be enriched as its availability is expanded?

If universal higher education is desirable, should it be compulsory? Should college attendance be subsidized so that no one is required to make the financial sacrifice that is unfair to many and impossible to some? One special CUNY program, SEEK, subsidizes students with the severest economic and scholastic handicaps. Their dropout rate has been smaller than for open-admissions students.

The questions boil down to this: Do we want to pay for universal higher education?

The budget stringency that provokes this question is not attributable alone to Governors Ronald Reagan and Nelson Rockefeller and their state legislatures. These elected officials follow and express the feelings of their constituencies. And on universal higher education those feelings, at best, are mixed.

We all recognize the economic benefit of college to the individual. Bureau of the Census figures for 1970 tell us that males over 25 who had completed four years of high school received a median income of $8,772, while those with four or more years of college were making $12,681. The credential value of the degree has diminished, but that is still a primary reason why parents want their children to go to college.

But should everyone go? Well, that's a big question.

Other things happen in college besides training for increased income. Most people sense what researchers have found: that college attendance results in more open-mindedness; declining authoritarianism, dogmatism, and prejudice; more liberal attitudes toward public issues; and sensitivity toward aesthetic experiences.

But some people may think the development of critical capacities is hurtful to society. They would probably prefer colleges to guarantee that "everyman" will be rigidly "socialized," trained to conform, sold on the status quo. If we deferred to their wishes, we might get more generous public support, but, of course, we would end by destroying higher education for the sake of expanding it.

The alternative is more difficult, and I submit it to the United Teaching Profession as our most vital task today: enlightening the taxpaying public to the need of better education for all.

We must show them how *their* interests are served by the kind of individual development they fear most in our colleges. In my opinion, there are no better arguments for college—and for universal higher education—than the kinds of soul-searching we have witnessed on campuses in recent years over Vietnam, racism, the environment, and the very quality of our lives.

Many people look upon such agitation as biting the hand that feeds them. I believe we can show that it is the most precious and ample return on their investment. Then, I believe, they will invest.

In 1967-68, the people of only 1 of the 10 wealthiest states—Hawaii—spent as much as 1 percent of their personal income on higher education.

We are not paying for universal higher education. We are not getting it anywhere. And in California and New York, we are not even giving it a fair trial. □

◆ *Readers are invited to send in their reactions to this article for possible use in a future issue of* Today's Education.

NO STARS, PLEASE

for teaching the retarded

MAXINE MAYS, *associate professor, Exceptional Children Education Division, State University College at Buffalo.*

□ **"You deserve a star in your crown for the wonder**ful work you do!"...."You must have all the patience in the world!"...."I couldn't do that for a minute; how do you stand it?"...."You certainly are to be admired for working with *those* children."

Is there a teacher of the retarded who hasn't heard similar exclamations of exuberance from those around him? Is there a teacher of the retarded who hasn't received these declarations with a bit of embarrassment and a degree of disdain? "A star in your crown." Why? What crown?

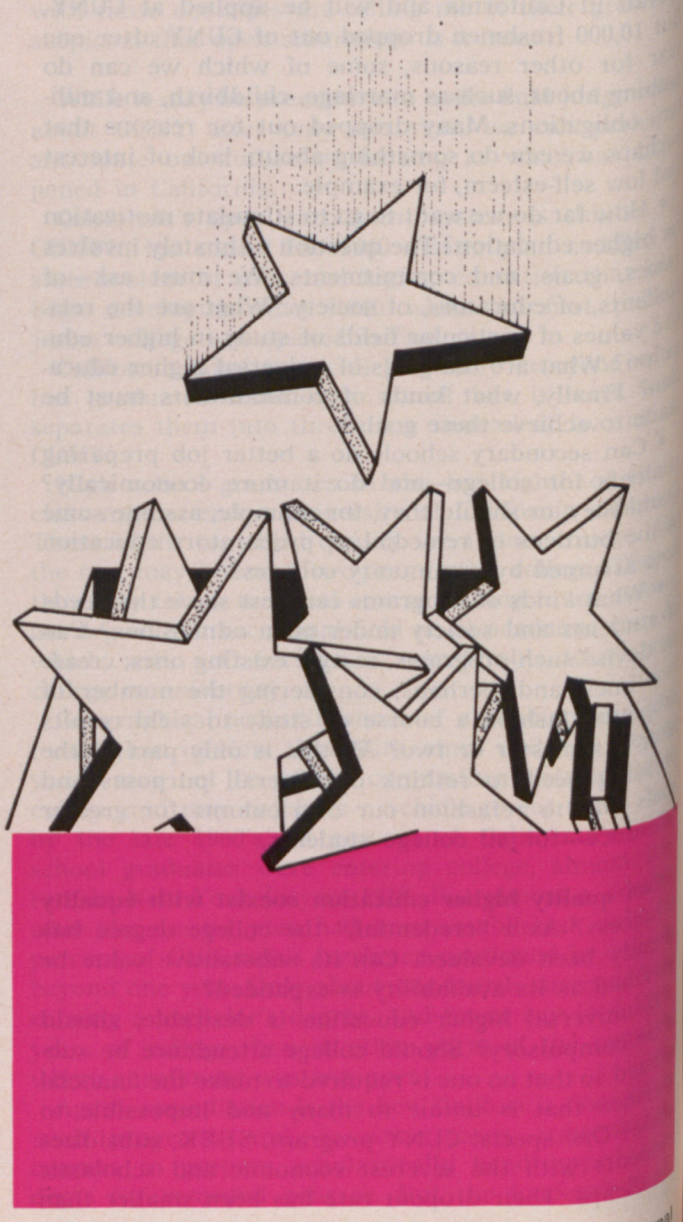
How strange that simply because one teaches the retarded it should automatically be assumed that he is doing "wonderful work." He may or may not be; the fact that he is *there* has little to do with the quality of his work. Yet comments such as these are made so frequently that teachers sometimes begin to believe them, even though they know better.

Why is there a general feeling that a teacher of the mentally retarded should be tremendously admired (or even pitied) for working with "those" children? Why indeed? As with all misconceptions and generalizations, several explanations are possible.

One clue may lie in the words "those children." Who are "those children"? The tone of voice with which the reference is made leads one to believe that the general concept of a retarded child often leaves something to be desired. Unfortunately, the public seems to have an image of the retarded child as an unattractive oddity, despite the diligent efforts of teachers, parents, and volunteer organizations to convince them otherwise. Typically, the first-time visitor to a class for the retarded is incredulous: "Why, I'm so surprised! They look so much like other children!" We often hear such comments, and they indicate that there are those who still view the retarded as unmanageable, pitiful, forlorn, depraved, deprived, deaf, dangerous, and mentally ill.

No wonder, then, the "valiant" teacher who dedicates himself to working with these creatures is frequently viewed as a shining angel of mercy.

Another explanation, perhaps, might lie with the teachers of the retarded. Possibly, as we talk about our work, we convey the impression that we work harder than other teachers; that our children require patience beyond human limits. Endlessly we discuss the inadequacies and failures of the retarded child—to let others know that our work is really pretty tough. By our attitudes, our choice of words, our



subtle hints that teaching "Johnny Retarded" is next to impossible, we may project the idea that we are really tremendous to go on with this heart-rending work. Consciously or not, perhaps we are seeking the "stars" bestowed upon us. But, because we haven't genuinely earned them, we are uncomfortable about receiving them and sometimes wish they would "go away."

The false image of the tireless, admirable, wonderful *special education* teacher should be destroyed. Images built on false premises are damaging and destructive. We can destroy the illusion and build a true picture by remembering that we are teachers, not martyrs; that our pupils are children, not monsters.

Of course we must speak about the children. We can help others see them as we do. We must erase the notion that these children are all alike. They are neither all miserable moppets nor all adorable dolls; neither all difficult nor all sheer delight. We have an obligation to share our "secret" with others. Incidents that reveal the children as they succeed and fail not only provide insights and humor but can also illuminate the dark corners of misunderstanding so many people have about these children. In our school for children who are trainable, we've encountered these:

One class happened to see a picture of the Liberty Bell in the morning paper. Their teacher asked, "Does anyone know what this is?" "A bell," answered one boy. "That's right, but this is a special bell. Don't you remember anything about this bell? Remember, I told you I saw this bell when I went to Philadelphia. Remember? I told you I even touched it. I *touched* this very bell." The boy looked carefully at the picture once more, then back to his teacher, and said accusingly, "Yeah, and you *broke* it, too! That's what happens when you don't keep your hands off things."

"Why do you color all the faces brown in the pictures you draw?" one girl was asked. "That's easy," she answered. "It's because my best friend is that color!"

A trainable boy was overheard to say, as he put his coat on to go home at the end of his school day, "Oh, boy, I got 100 on my paper today, and I get to join a Scout troop. I guess I'm the luckiest kid in town!"

A teen-aged girl carefully observed her teacher as she came into the classroom one morning. "I know what you're going to do today," the girl sang out. "You're going to a meeting after school." "Why, yes, that's right. How did you know?" "I can tell," the girl answered, "because you have on your high heels and your shiny stockings today." Observant, like other children?

"Growing up is hard," wailed a 15-year-old trainable boy. "Yes, it is," agreed his teacher. "What's bothering you today?" "Well, I keep trying not to get mad when the kids tease me. I keep trying and trying, cause you told me big kids shouldn't get mad and cry about things like that. Well, I don't cry any more, but I still get mad. It's awful hard not to." Feelings, like other children?

A retarded teen-ager had been arrested during an unfortunate incident in his neighborhood. As a result, he had become terrified of the police and hostile toward them. A year later, after a series of units in his classroom on the consequences of breaking laws, the implications of arrest, the reasons for law enforcement agencies, and what it means to respect authority, another incident occurred.

While on a fishing expedition, the boy found a radio buried in the sand by the lake. He could have kept it, but he didn't. He took the radio and rode his bicycle 30 miles to give it to the police. He had learned to be unafraid, to obey the law, and to practice good citizenship. He also learned, as he proudly accepted a $5 reward, that we sometimes benefit from our good behavior. Success, like other children?

These are the sorts of experiences that should be shared with your colleagues. Keep to yourself your once-in-a-while feelings that Betsy never catches on to anything, that Frank will never learn to talk, that Judy's drooling is driving you wild!

In addition to letting our children speak for themselves, we can correct the illusion that they are a sorry lot by curbing our penchant for showing off the children and our program in well-meant demonstration programs.

It is sheer illusion to believe that the public is attracted to our overlong, overprepared "assembly" programs, which often extend beyond sensible limits the capacities of these children to perform. The applause following such programs often spells relief that they are over, not proof that they were enjoyed or appreciated.

In addition to the work of revealing a more satisfactory picture of the retarded child, we can focus some attention on the image of the teacher who teaches him. We can be more honest about ourselves and our work. We can point out that, in fact, work with a retarded child who is trying his very best often requires much less patience than does work with a bright child who is using only half of his potential. We can explain that teaching retarded children, *like all other teaching*, is hard work, but that it is also good work with many compensations.

Some of our admirers might be shocked to learn that teaching the retarded offers a greater variety and flexibility than does most other teaching. In what other field are there so few required children's texts, so few rigidly prescribed course outlines and directives on precisely how to teach? Where is there equal tolerance for the variety of creative approaches in teaching that our work permits? Where is there so likely a commitment to the teaching of children as opposed to subject matter alone?

Furthermore, we must remind the world and ourselves that we are indeed paid for our work; sometimes more than other teachers are.

In short, "that" classroom with "those" children is really a pretty good place to be. So, if there are to be "stars for our crowns," let us give them to the children who have made possible the joys we find in our work. □

Discipline Is Caring

ALVIN W. HOWARD, *associate professor, College of Education, the University of New Mexico, Albuquerque. Dr. Howard has taught on the elementary and junior high levels and has been a junior high counselor and principal.*

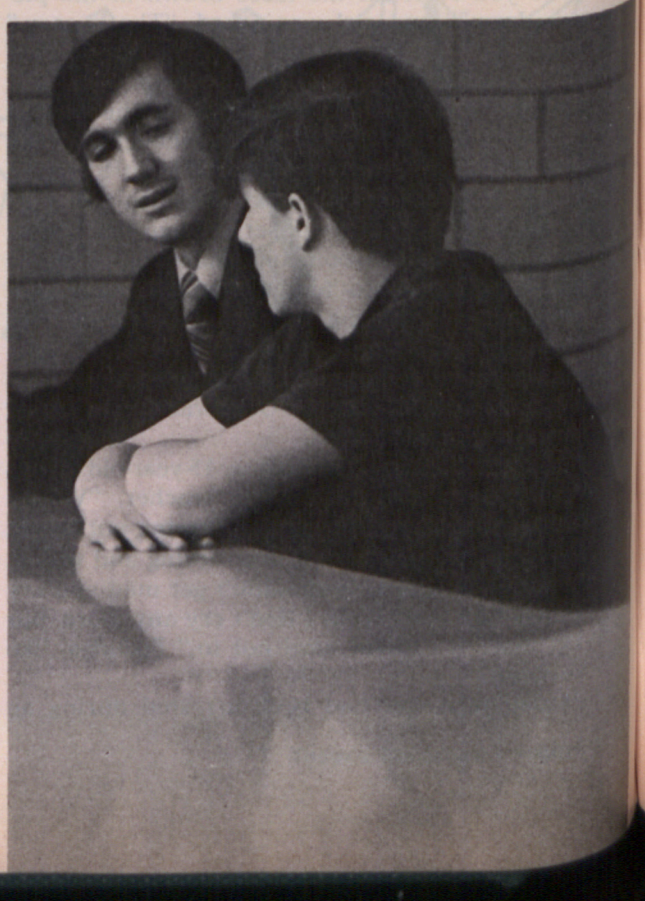
□ **Ask any teacher, beginning or experienced, what** his biggest difficulty with children is and he will almost certainly answer, "Discipline and classroom control." As the second major difficulty, he will probably cite student achievement or lack of it in school, a problem closely related to discipline.

Good discipline is important because no group of people can work together successfully without establishing standards of behavior, mutual respect, and a desirable system of values that leads each person in the group to develop self-control and self-direction.

Good discipline does *not* result if a teacher adopts an inflexible punitive approach or if he is too permissive, pretending that annoying behavior does not exist. In *Schools Without Failure,* William Glasser points out that those who would completely eliminate or substantially relax rules in their eagerness to please children don't realize that firm and fair policies of discipline indicate that adults care about young people and that children may interpret the reverse as a symptom of lack of interest in them.

In their relations with pupils, teachers should be firm, fair, and friendly. A teacher needs to take firm positions on many things, but before he does he must determine what he is standing for or against and what his stand implies. Firmness does not imply rigid domination of children nor does it require snarling and growling at them to cow them into submission. Authoritarianism breeds resentment; taking a "Do this or else" position can be exactly the wrong thing for a teacher to do. (For example, a beginning teacher told Dick, a large eighth grader, to take his seat or go to the office. He did neither, and she could not physically compel him to obey her. So, she sent for the principal who, after a quick appraisal of the situation, said, "Come, Dick, you and I need to talk about this some place else.")

Most children have a keen sense of fair play. If a pupil does something wrong, he expects to bear the consequences, but he also expects anyone else who commits the same offense to receive the same treatment. A teacher should not play favorites or punish the entire class for the sins of a few (e.g. mass detention). A better method is to have a private conference



The three F's of good discipline are fairness, firmness, and friendliness.

with the erring child as soon as possible about the problem. At best, detention, whether for one student or for many, is of dubious value.

A teacher should be scrupulously fair and courteous—especially if he expects similar treatment. The teacher who makes wisecracks or is flip or arrogant can expect the same from his students and is not justified in resenting their attitude. (Each day, Mr. Johnson, a first year teacher, sent a large number of students to the office for "smarting off." Yet, when the counselor pointed out to him that virtually every youngster complained that Mr. Johnson talked that way to them, the teacher was indignant.)

A teacher should demonstrate friendliness by being understanding, tolerant, and sincere with students. Efforts by a teacher to be one of the gang are seldom, if ever, successful and often prevent development of an atmosphere of mutual respect that is conducive to learning. The teacher who adopts the slang, customs, and behavior of his students will discover that they may be amused or offended by his actions or contemptuous of them. (A group of girls in one home economics class requested a different teacher because theirs was so "cutesy" that they couldn't stand her.)

Some discipline problems, hopefully minor ones, come up in every classroom. But minor problems aren't likely to become major ones if a teacher remembers the following guidelines:

1. Work at being the kind of person children like and trust, and remember that everyone needs success—particularly those with a record of failure. Maintain the respect of the class without being condescending. (Gary, a large sixth grader who had been sent to the office for his "noncooperative" attitude, told the principal he wouldn't respond to his teacher's questions as long as he had to tell his answers to her clown hand puppet.)

2. Maintain a cheerful and attractive classroom rather than a disorderly one which might encourage unruly behavior. Also, remember that a pleasant voice, a neat appearance, and a positive attitude are contagious.

3. Get to know the students. The teacher who knows his students soon develops almost a sixth sense for anticipating trouble before it begins. Virtually every good teacher reports that some of his students say he seems to have eyes in the back of his head.

4. Be enthusiastic and courteous and keep your sense of humor. The teacher who really believes that children and learning are important tends to be enthusiastic, and that enthusiasm is contagious. Be as courteous to your class as you wish them to be with you. Also, don't "see" everything that happens; learn to ignore some things and laugh at others.

5. Make education interesting and relevant to children's lives. The teacher who believes he can get by without planning may get away with it temporarily, but before long his lack of organization and imagination will produce dreary lessons, student restiveness, increasing discontent, and ultimate chaos. My guess is that the largest number of classroom offenses occur because the curriculum is dull and the teacher has planned poorly.

6. Don't use schoolwork as punishment. (Linda told her mother that she hated both school and her fifth grade teacher. "Every time we forget to act like prisoners in a reform school," she said, "we have

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B. F. Skinner on Punishment and Permissiveness

□ **In building his case for the control of man by an environment largely of his own making, B. F. Skinner devotes chapters of his recent, highly controversial book,** *Beyond Freedom and Dignity* [Copyright © 1971 by B. F. Skinner], to discussing and dismissing other methods of control. Here is some of what he had to say about the methods of punishment and of all-out permissiveness. The following is reprinted by permission of Alfred A. Knopf, Inc.

Except when physically restrained, a person is least free or dignified when he is under threat of punishment, and unfortunately most people often are. Punishment is very common in nature, and we learn a great deal from it. A child runs awkwardly, falls, and is hurt; he touches a bee and is stung; he takes a bone from a dog and is bitten; and as a result he learns not to do these things again. It is mainly to avoid various forms of natural punishment that people have built a more comfortable and less dangerous world.

A person resorts to punishment when he criticizes, ridicules, blames, or physically attacks another in order to suppress unwanted behavior. Government is often defined in terms of the power to punish, and some religions teach that sinful behavior will be followed by eternal punishments of the most horrible sort.

We should expect the literatures of freedom and dignity to oppose measures of this sort and to work toward a world in which punishment is less common or even absent, and up to a point they have done so. But punitive sanctions are still common. People still control each other more often through censure or blame than commendation or praise, the military and the police remain the most powerful arms of government, communicants are still occasionally reminded of hellfire, and teachers have abandoned the birch rod only to replace it with more subtle forms of punishment.

The aversive condition brought about by punishment has a much more important effect. Quite literally, a person may subsequently behave "in order to avoid punishment." He can avoid it by not behaving in punishable ways, but there are other possibilities. Some of these are disruptive and maladaptive or neurotic, and as a result they have been closely studied.

The so-called "dynamisms" of Freud are said to be ways in which repressed wishes evade the censor and find expression, but they can be interpreted simply as ways in which people avoid punishment. Thus, a person may be-

more written work.") Give reasonable assignments, and don't be vague and ambiguous when giving directions.

7. Never use threats in an effort to enforce discipline. What will you do if a child takes up the challenge—as someone ultimately will? A threat that is not carried out only makes the teacher look foolish. (For example, if the teacher threatens to read aloud any notes he confiscates, he may find himself in a confrontation with a militant who refuses to part with a note or the teacher may find himself looking silly after reading aloud a note that proves to be a deliberate plant.)

8. Never humiliate a child. Publicly scolding or ridiculing a student will make him bitter and will probably turn the rest of the class against the teacher. (A ninth grade teacher sharpened the fine-honed edge of his tongue against a borderline dropout. When the boy did drop out of school, the class was extremely antagonistic to the teacher for the remainder of the year.)

9. Don't strong-arm students. (A high school physical education instructor abruptly seized a tenth grade boy by the left arm, demanding, "Where do you think you're going?" The boy spun with the pull and landed a looping right hook between the teacher's eyes, breaking his nose and knocking him out.)

10. Avoid arguing with your pupils. Discussions about classwork are invaluable, but arguments that become emotional encounters with pupil freedom fighters create ill will on both sides, sometimes with rather surprising side effects. (The group of seventh graders who requested that they be transferred to another class because all they ever did was argue with their teacher knew the difference between discussion and argument.)

11. Don't act as though you expect trouble or you will almost certainly encounter some. (Mr. Potter consistently reported Bennie as a troublemaker, although no other teacher did. Bennie reported, "No matter what I do for Mr. Potter, it's wrong." Mr. Potter explained, "I had Bennie's brother two years ago, and he was a troublemaker. I told Bennie the first day of school that I wouldn't put up with any nonsense from him.")

12. Let students know you care. Caring means determining, preferably jointly with the class, what is acceptable and what is not, both in terms of behavior and achievement, continually keeping in mind that all children differ and that what is reasonable and acceptable with one group may not be with another.

Caring means that you are interested in what your students have to say even though it may not pertain directly to the lesson and that you must forego doing all the talking.

13. Establish as few rules as possible and keep them as simple as possible. Examine them carefully from time to time and eliminate those that are unnecessary. (For years, one school enforced a rule that no club could meet on Thursday afternoons. When a new teacher asked why this was so, no one could give a reason. Eventually someone remembered that a long-extinct service organization had conducted activities for children in a nearby building on Thursday afternoons.)

14. Expect to handle the normal kinds of misbehavior yourself, but seek assistance for those problems that need the skills of a specialist. □

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have in ways that will not be punished because they cannot be seen, as by *fantasying* or *dreaming*. He may *sublimate* by engaging in behavior which has rather similar reinforcing effects but is not punished. He may *displace* punishable behavior by directing it toward objects which cannot punish—for example, he may be aggressive toward physical objects, children, or small animals. He may watch or read about others who engage in punishable behavior, *identifying* himself with them, or interpret the behavior of others as punishable, *projecting* his own tendencies. He may *rationalize* his behavior by giving reasons, either to himself or others, which make it nonpunishable—as in asserting that he is punishing a child for the child's own good.

An all-out permissiveness has been seriously advanced as an alternative to punishment. No control at all is to be exerted, and the autonomy of the individual will therefore remain unchallenged. If a person behaves well, it is because he is either innately good or self-controlled. Freedom and dignity are guaranteed. A free and virtuous man needs no government (governments only corrupt), and under anarchy he can be naturally good and admired for being so. He needs no orthodox religion; he is pious, and he behaves piously without following rules, perhaps with the help of direct mystical experience. He needs no organized economic incentives; he is naturally industrious and will exchange part of what he owns with others on fair terms under the natural conditions of supply and demand. He needs no teacher; he learns because he loves learning and his natural curiosity dictates what he needs to know. If life becomes too complex or if his natural status is disturbed by accidents or the intrusion of would-be controllers, he may have personal problems, but he will find his own solutions without the direction of a psychotherapist.

Permissive practices have many advantages. They save the labor of supervision and the enforcement of sanctions. They do not generate counterattack. They do not expose the practitioner to the charge of restricting freedom or destroying dignity. They exonerate him when things go wrong. If men behave badly toward each other in a permissive world, it is because human nature is less than perfect. If they fight when there is no government to preserve order, it is because they have aggressive instincts. If a child becomes delinquent when his parents have made no effort to control him, it is because he has associated with the wrong people or has criminal tendencies.

Permissiveness is not, however, a policy; it is the abandonment of policy, and its apparent advantages are illusory. To refuse to control is to leave control not to the person himself, but to other parts of the social and nonsocial environments. □

It Won't Win an Academy Award

. . . but process rather than product was what counted in making our high school movie

DAVID V. RATHZ, *chairman, English Department, Greensbriar Junior High School, Parma Heights, Ohio; former English teacher, Valley Forge High School, Parma Heights, Ohio.*

☐ **"This is the first book I ever read!"**

The young man who made this statement, an eleventh grader in a fairly typical suburban high school, had actually read a novel for the first time in his life. His motivation for reading it was not to earn a good grade or to demonstrate loyalty to his teachers. Rather he had felt a sense of responsibility to the members of his class who had decided to read *Of Mice and Men* by John Steinbeck and make a movie of it.

The students involved in this project were ones who found their vocational courses relevant but not their English and social studies classes. Consequently, the coordinators of the departments of English and social studies, working in cooperation with the Vocational Department, had set up a pilot program to try to reach these students. The pilot involved a team-teaching approach and a new curriculum in English and social studies in three Parma, Ohio, high schools.

Gene Kleindienst, a U.S. history teacher, and I were the team for this new core curriculum at Valley Forge High School. Our program went into effect the last three months of the school year 1969-1970 and was fully implemented in all three high schools in 1970-71.

Generally speaking, the young women and men in our class had failed at least one year during their elementary schooling. Their reading levels were low, ranging from the third to the 57th percentile, and most of their IQ scores ranged from 75 to 100.

At the outset of this new course, we asked the students to list on the chalkboard all the topics they wanted to consider throughout the remainder of the school year. Then we left the room so that the students could develop their "dream course" on their own. Toward the end of the period, Mr. Kleindienst and I went back to the classroom and found some 70 topics listed on the board, including love, the Great Depression, racial prejudice, and mercy killing.

Leaders had emerged to draw ideas from the group, and the class had appointed two students to write topics on the board and a secretary to make a reference copy of the list for us. The following days the class categorized the topics, and discussed how they might best cover many of them.

Finally they agreed to study a novel that touched upon many of these topics and to produce a movie based on the book. The students asked me, the English teacher, to recommend several novels from which they could choose one with which to work. From the five I suggested, they decided on *Of Mice and Men.*

From my description of the novel, the students realized that they needed background information on two of their original 70 topics: mental retardation and the Great Depression. (*Of Mice and Men* is set in the 1930's, and one of the main characters, Lennie, is mentally retarded.)

Mr. Kleindienst and I suggested that the students read Daniel Keyes' short story, "Flowers for Algernon," as one way to explore the world of the mentally retarded. We also proposed a field trip to a classroom of educable mentally retarded youngsters at a local elementary school. After these experiences, our students were more sympathetic toward the mentally retarded and could better understand Lennie.

As background for the depression years, we asked a member of our Social Studies Department to relate his experiences as a teen-ager in New Castle, Pennsylvania, during the 1930's. We also scheduled a trip to the movie, "They Shoot Horses, Don't They?" in order to learn more about the depression and its effects upon society and the individual. Also, the mercy killing at the climax of the movie is similar to the one in the Steinbeck novel.

After the class concluded its background research, students began reading *Of Mice and Men,* chapter by chapter, discussing each one so that they could fully grasp each segment of the book. They talked about the plot, recurrent themes, characters, setting, etc.

When the students had thoroughly read and discussed the book, they were ready to begin planning their movie. They spent one day listing the advantages and disadvantages of making a movie on location with a Super-8 motion-picture camera and audiotape recorder versus shooting it indoors on the school stage with a television camera and videotape recorder. They eventually decided to shoot the movie on location.

At this point, the class invited another guest speaker into the classroom—the drama coach at Valley Forge. She gave suggestions about casting, lighting, camera techniques, costuming, and other pertinent topics.

We were now prepared for tryouts for the movie. Using the TV camera, videotape recorder, and monitor, students selected a part of the novel and ran through the dialogue with their books in hand. Then they played back the scene on the tape, analyzing their acting strengths and weaknesses.

After the class had spent several hours working with the videotape recorder, the students were prepared to pick a cast. They voted for those they considered best for a particular part and listed their chief reasons for their selections of those students.

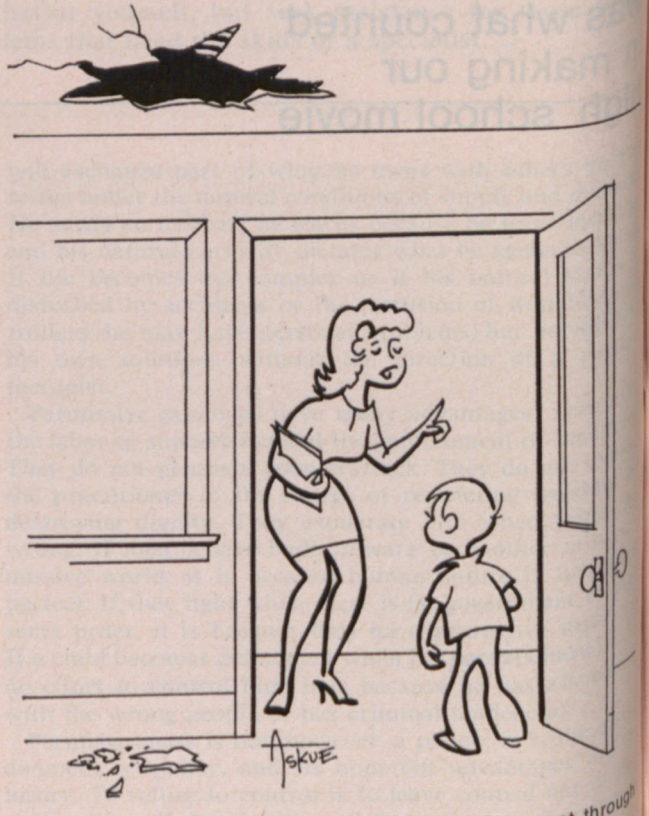
Then rehearsals began. While one group rehearsed a scene, other cast members studied their lines for the next day's rehearsal. Students who did not have acting roles worked on technical aspects of the film.

With three weeks left in the school year, the students were finally ready to shoot their film. The opening scene, the introduction of George and Lennie, and the closing one, the mercy killing of Lennie, take place along a riverbank. We filmed these episodes at Rocky River Reservation, a section in the Cleveland Metropolitan Park System. Once on location, we ran through the scenes several times to acquaint the actors with their surroundings. Background noise was the only problem we encountered while filming: The sound of jet airliners did not fit our 1930's setting.

After a day of rehearsing and filming on the riverbank, we returned to school to rehearse the barn and bunkhouse scenes before filming these episodes on a farm that belongs to the father of one of the teachers at our school. This rustic setting brought the needed touch of authenticity and realism to these scenes.

In producing this film, students became acquainted with different techniques of film making and some of the problems inherent in making a motion picture. They also became aware of the film as an artistic expression and as a literary medium.

The tangible result of our work was a 43-minute movie of *Of Mice and Men.* It will never win an Academy Award, but this does not bother us at all. The process rather than the product is what counts in a project of this sort. These students had learned some history, analyzed a book, and conceived a motion picture. One had even read his first novel. □



"You mean, 'Miss Jones became angry,' not 'She went through the ceiling.' "

Three months in Japan
enabled Eskimos and Aleuts
to compete with their white classmates . . .

On an Equal Footing

W. RUSSELL JONES, JR., *associate professor of educational administration and coordinator of teacher education programs, University of Alaska, Southeastern Regional Center, Juneau. Dr. Jones was director of instructional services for the Alaska Department of Education until August 1971.*

□ **Almost anyone is sure to ask, "Dillingham? Where's** Dillingham?" when he hears that the most innovative program in all Alaska and possibly in the nation was developed and implemented in Dillingham during the 1970-71 school year.

The question is understandable because Dillingham, a small fishing village at the mouth of the Wood River in Southwest Alaska, has only about 850 inhabitants. The visitor finds a helter-skelter assortment of weather-beaten cabins and a few modern homes clustered around a modern school building, two general stores, a couple of service stations, a bank, a garage, and a few other small businesses. On the waterfront is the cannery, which offers seasonal employment.

As is true of most Alaskan villages, Dillingham's main transportation link with other population centers is by air. A plane goes daily to Anchorage, and there are several charter plane services to outlying villages and fishing camps. The only road out of Dillingham leads to Alegnagik, an even smaller village 20 miles away.

Dillingham's isolation, combined with the fact that about 90 percent of the villagers have some degree of Alaskan Eskimo or Aleut background, created educational needs that the traditional school program was not meeting. Because of language and cultural barriers, the typical native students were often three years behind national norms in reading and composition skills by the time they entered the ninth grade. Though there were indications that they were just as intelligent as the white students, they had lost confidence in their ability to compete with them academically. As a consequence, many native students dropped out before completing high school, and very few ever attempted college. Indeed, no more than five students out of a class of 30 had ever gone to college and survived the first year.

In view of these problems, Dan Turner, the superintendent, and Bob Cherry, the high school principal, felt that a partial solution would be to broaden the experiences of the students and give them opportunity to regain their self-confidence by providing them with a program which gave them just as much chance for success as the white students.

Realizing that many of the high school students had never been to a town larger than Dillingham, Mr. Turner and Mr. Cherry envisioned a program that would get students out of the village and into a metropolitan area for a series of broad educational, cultural, and social experiences sometime during the junior or senior year. They decided that in order to put the native students on an equal basis with the white students, such a program would have to be in a foreign country, where native and white students alike would have to learn to cope with a different language and a different culture. Japan seemed an ideal selection because of Alaska's many trade connections with that country.

After closely examining projected state payments under the Foundation Act, Bureau of Indian Affairs (BIA) support available for certain native students, and tuition and board-and-room payments made to some students under the State's Boarding Home Program, Mr. Turner felt he could operate a program without other financial help. He then completed plans for the Japan Study Program.

For the first two weeks of school in September 1970, the 28 students who volunteered for the program received intensive instruction in Japanese culture,

history, and language from a professor in Asian studies from Alaska Methodist University and two of his graduate students.

All students who could obtain parental permission and had the estimated $300 available for personal expenditures were accepted. The school paid travel, board, and lodging. Six sponsors (three teachers, an attorney, a social worker, and a graduate student in Japanese language from Alaska Methodist University) agreed to accompany the group at a reduced salary. In addition to administering the program and chaperoning the students, the teacher-sponsors were responsible for organizing classes in language arts, Japanese language, and social studies during the group's stay in Japan. Nagoya (Japan) University agreed to provide graduate students to assist in these studies and also to act as guides for some of the cultural tours. Finally, the great day came and the students set forth for a three-month stay in Japan.

Each week, sponsors and students mailed reports to the school office in Dillingham. In their reports, the native students indicated they were treated on a par with the white students. In fact, at times they got a more favorable reception because of their Asiatic facial features. Furthermore, the fact that the white students had just as much difficulty understanding Japanese and adapting to a foreign culture and to large cities made the native students feel (probably for the first time in their school careers) just as competent as their white classmates. As a consequence, the native students came home with a newfound confidence in their own ability to compete with white students and to accomplish learning tasks beyond their previous expectations. The white students, on the other hand, returned home with new respect for the learning abilities of their native classmates.

Back at school in Dillingham for the second semester, the students felt constricted academically and socially, because the Japan experience had so broadened their outlook. In a long meeting with the group, the superintendent became convinced that they needed some other educational experience in order to capitalize on their newfound motivation. As a result, he persuaded University of Alaska authorities to allow these students to enroll in regular freshman courses at the University. The high school would give them credit for successful completion of college courses; the University would hold college credit in abeyance until the students graduated from high school and would then grant it for those courses successfully completed.

Mr. Turner next received permission from the State Department of Education to count the University as an extension of the Dillingham school district so that Foundation Act funds could be used; and he received assurance from the BIA that the students would be eligible for tuition grants and room-and-board allotments.

In order to eliminate some of the adjustment prob-lems at the University, Mr. Turner sent along two teachers (a man and his wife) to serve as sponsors and advisers. They had accompanied the students to Japan, had established rapport with them, and understood many of their personal problems as well as their academic ones.

In January 1971, 19 of the 28 students who had gone to Japan enrolled at the University of Alaska. After about two weeks, two dropped out and returned to Dillingham. The 17 remaining students enrolled in three classes each: English composition, Japanese language, and either chemistry or Japanese writing, for a total of 12 semester hours.

At the end of the semester, only two had grade-point averages under 1.50 on the four point scale, while five had averages of 3.00 or higher. The group averages were 2.08 for high school juniors and 2.5 for seniors. Some of the college instructors who were interviewed indicated that the average Dillingham student was on a par with the average college freshman and was considerably superior to the average freshman enrollee from "bush" Alaska. The fact that eight of the 17 were actually high school juniors made the group's performance even more unusual.

Two staff members from the Division of Instructional Services, Alaska State Department of Education, who made personal evaluations of the project at the end of the school year, reported that the program was quite successful overall. They stated:

"The experience in Japan provided students the opportunity to adjust to cosmopolitan life and to the frustrations of big-city living. It also provided students an opportunity to develop an improved self-image, to develop courses of action to solve particular problems, and to accept responsibility for their own actions.

"The students attended the University as a group. Individuals identified with the group as a result of their many experiences together and could rely on the group for support. They did not feel lost and alone as most rural freshmen do.

"The Dillingham school district sent two sponsors with the group to the University. These sponsors had already received the group's trust during the period in Japan. Individuals could go to them with their problems. The sponsors could talk to professors and help solve mutual problems. They could also help the students improve their study habits and counsel them on appropriate behavior in different situations."

Twenty-one out of last year's 36 Dillingham graduates are presently attending college. Compare this to the fact that formerly no more than five had ever satisfactorily completed the first year. Something must have caused the difference, and all evidence points to the program.

Certainly, if education for the disadvantaged is to improve, such fresh approaches as the Dillingham-Japan Study Program are called for, rather than the traditional ones that have failed us for so long. □

LET'S BE CREATIVE: MY MUSICAL JUNKYARD

This is one of a series of articles on creative art and musical activities that elementary school teachers without special expertise can use with their pupils. The National Art Education Association and Music Educators National Conference, both NEA national affiliates, have cooperated in the preparation of this series.

My music room is now a junkyard—and everybody's happy about it!

The transformation dates back to the day when I recalled hearing that some pop groups use automobile brake drums as percussion instruments. I had been trying to find something new to catch my pupils' interest; maybe this was it.

The next day my husband and I set out for an automobile-wrecking yard where we were permitted to forage for ourselves. We discovered that brake drums, which look like pint-sized freight-car wheels with a hole in the middle, come in different sizes, with varying pitch and resonance.

After a lot of banging and pinging around (I'd taken my pitch pipe and triangle beater along), we found two drums with a good do-sol relationship to use as timpani. We paid the dealer a dollar per drum and drove off happily with our finds.

My pupils (grades four through seven) were pleased with the new musical "instruments." Soon they began to look for other items we could use—things that made interesting sounds when struck, scraped, rattled, or blown. At my invitation, they brought in potential instruments—a fascinating variety of objects, some of which had to be returned to mother's kitchen or dad's workbench. The pupils also brought in discarded items from alleys and creek beds, thus aiding the antipollution drive.

We tried out all of these, noting those with clear and distinguishable pitches and those that made only percussive sounds. I tried to accept the simplest items with as much delight as the more spectacular ones. For example, the boy who discovered his empty milk carton made a good drum when hit on the bottom with a spoon got the glory for that innovation. One of our surprising discoveries was that some bottle openers produce a clear high C when suspended from a string and struck with a table knife.

Pupils had about three minutes at the beginning of each class to explore on their own, as long as the noise was bearable. Even the shy students participated.

Another interesting musical activity was based on our work of the previous year when we composed music based on the 12-tone scale. We gave the 12 resonator bells from C up to B to 12 children who lined up across the room without any special order. Using a meter of six beats, each child played his note in turn down the line, and this became the melody. We then added rhythm instruments to our tone row, a few playing at a time.

Now we applied the same techniques to our junk instruments, choosing for the 12 tones only those items with pitch and variety in timbre. The junk items with pitch carried the melody; a few objects without pitch played on the beat. The fun came in tape-recording this "music" and then listening to it. The results were often suprisingly musical.

Our junk music adventure provided valuable musical experiences and learning, I believe. Student interest was certainly high. The stigma that leads older children to regard rhythm instruments as "kid stuff" was not a problem.

The students discovered the relationship of size and substance to pitch and timbre. They also learned many things about vibrations, such as the fact that objects which do not ring very well when held in one's hand may ring beautifully when suspended from a wire. An item which produced more than one pitch led to a discussion of overtones. Knowledge about how horns work came from blowing on ordinary pieces of pipe.

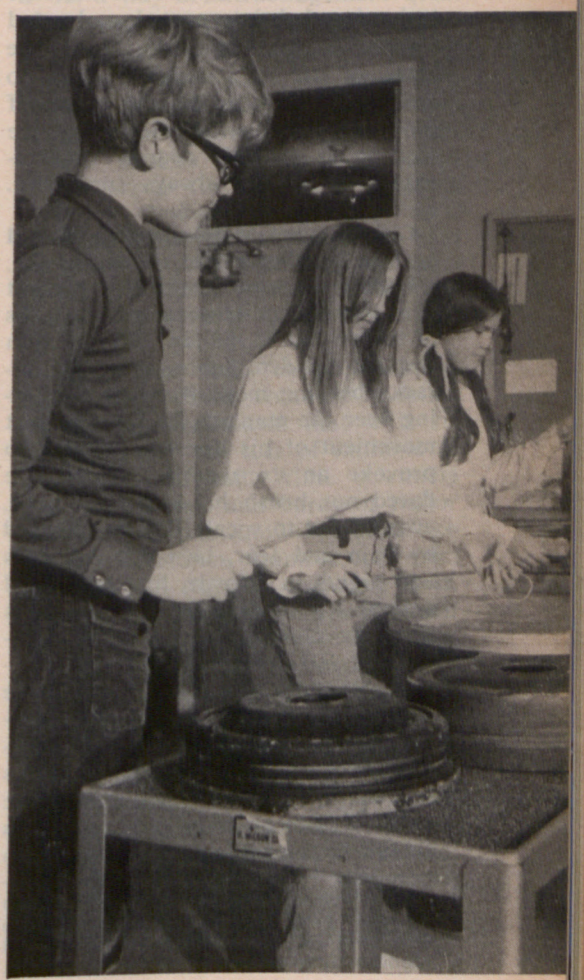
The initial purpose of this unit was to introduce contemporary music. However, this became a two-way street, for I played such compositions as Lou Harrison's *Canticle No. 3* to help the children gain confidence in creating their own compositions using their own junk instruments. They divided into small groups to plan and rehearse their 30-second compositions, each child choosing two instruments. Finding music in unexpected places offered another type of appreciation.

But more than that, the students discovered the possibilities in simple things—in free things which do not carry price tags.

Needless to say, new junk items appear regularly in class. Each one is sounded, used musically, and respectfully evaluated. But only the best are chosen for our permanent collection.

We use our junk instruments alone or with other music. But when the students have a choice, they almost always prefer the junk instruments. So does their teacher.

—Dorothy Elliott, *music teacher, Everette Lee DeGolyer Elementary School, Dallas.*



YOUR HEALTH
PAIN: NECESSARY WARNING OR CRIPPLING DISEASE?

□ **Most of us think of pain as some**thing that hurts; beyond that, we know very little about it. One of our nation's foremost research scientists on pain, Henry K. Beecher, M.D., of the Harvard Medical School, concludes that pain is indefinable except as each man introspectively defines it for himself.

The biologist considers pain a sensory signal that warns the individual when harmful stimulus threatens injury. The philosopher calls pain "a passion of the soul," an emotional process and a moralizing influence. To the sociologist, pain and the threat of it are powerful tools of learning and social preservation. To the physiologist, pain is a sensation like sight or hearing. The psychologist is concerned with pain as another form of perception that is individual and modifiable.

To the physician, pain is a message to be decoded, interpreted, and acted upon. The physician diagnoses the cause of the pain and then tries to eradicate it by curing the cause. If this isn't possible, he tries to reduce pain to a tolerable degree. Unfortunately, he is not always successful.

Certain types of pain are considered diseases in themselves. René Leriche, a French surgeon, described a patient who complained of occasional attacks of severe pain in his jaw. Examination showed no identifiable cause. The attacks became more frequent, spreading over the man's face. The slightest movement of his lips was enough to provoke an excruciating attack. He dared not brush his teeth or shave, even feared to speak. Utterly debased by pain and fear, he spent his days and nights in despair, like a trapped animal. His combination of symptoms form the classical pattern of tic douloureux (trigeminal neuralgia).

Dr. Leriche strongly disputed the concept that pain is a necessary warning signal. Pain, he believed, is a disease in itself—one that dehumanizes like madness. What purpose does the pain of cancer, neuralgia, arthritis serve? As a warning, the pain is too late, for the disease is already well advanced. And what of those insidious diseases that are not accompanied by pain—diabetes for example?

The two concepts—that pain is a necessary warning and that it is a disease in itself—are reconciled by John J. Bonica, M.D., author of the definitive textbook for physicians, *The Management of Pain.* Dr. Bonica states that pain can be one or the other at different times and in the same person. If pain causes a person to pull his hand away from a sharp object, it serves a purpose. But in its intractable, debasing stages, it becomes a destructive disease.

The two general types of pain are skin pain, that makes us act quickly to escape it, and deep, lingering aching that tends to make us withdraw into seclusion. Itching is a particular kind of pain that can torment almost intolerably. Still another type is so strange that it induces disbelief. A person who has lost an arm or a leg may suffer excruciating itching or acute pain in the "phantom limb." So real in fact is this type of sensation that some patients have killed themselves to escape it.

Pain intensity ranges from excruciating neuralgia to wide degrees of pain within particular types of injuries such as cuts, puncture wounds, and abrasions—from a sharp, brief sting to prolonged, intense throbbing. Certain parts of the body, such as the eye, are more sensitive to pain than others. An almost invisible particle causes instant pain which is intensified by fear of damage to that organ.

Superficial wounds are more painful than deep ones. Bullet wounds, for example, are generally painless. Within the body, the solid organs like the kidneys and liver are insensitive. The hollow, tubular organs—the ureter, bladder, stomach, intestines, and blood vessels—are exquisitely sensitive to stretching or distortion, especially when inflamed. They do not respond to other stimuli, however. The spasms caused by kidney stone colic, for instance, are considered one of the most excruciating types of pain.

Although muscles do not have pain-sensory organs like those of the skin, they can cause severe, crippling pain when the products of muscular ac ity are not removed fast enough the blood stream because of some c culatory problem. Angina pectoris a type of muscular pain that arises the heart muscle, particularly af exertion.

The psychological nature of pain so complex as to be almost beyo comprehension. Howard W. Hagge M.D., in his book *Devils, Drugs a Doctors,* calls pain the supreme s jective phenomenon of disease says it is almost wholly mental. man during rage feels no pain fr injury until after his anger h cooled; the same man waiting in anteroom of the dentist may suf agony in anticipation."

Excitement is not the only condit that interferes with the perception pain. Whatever alters brain functio whether alcohol, shock, or other fa tors, impairs pain perception.

While one person may disrega pain from an injury, another pers with a similar injury may find t pain insupportable. Irving K. Zo M.D., of Brandeis University co cludes that it is not necessarily pa that sends patients to the doctor, b rather other stresses, such as fam problems or business difficulties.

Irish-Americans, Dr. Zola foun tend to deny their pain while Itali Americans dramatize it. Both th cultural groups have developed diff ent philosophies of pain to serve t same purpose—to provide a sho absorber against the harsh impact tragedy and poverty. Even thou their circumstances improve, the at tudes that aided in coping with ness are passed from one generatio to another.

The perception of pain is also in fluenced by age, sex, race, autonom nervous system, circulatory chang skin temperature, sweating, anxie and fear, training, bias, inattentio lethargy, suggestion and emotio warmth and cold, diurnal variatio and the passage of time. More tha that, the pain threshold (the point a which pain is perceived) can be raise as much as 45 percent by a loud nois auto-suggestion, hypnosis, or othe distractions.

Parents condition the attitude o

This article is based on the brochure *Pain* by Helen Neal. Single copies are available free from the National Institute of General Medical Sciences, Bethesda, MD 20014.

their children toward pain by being oversolicitous or casual, by transferring their own fears or courage, their tendency to complain or to endure. This parental influence may act as a sort of thermostat that sets at an early age the pain threshold their children will have throughout life.

Control of pain is seriously complicated by the tolerance some patients develop to sedative drugs—a tolerance that is prevalent because of the widespread use of prescription and other drugs, including alcohol. Chronic users of tranquilizers, hypnotics, and alcohol are resistant to potent analgesics.

Timing is more important to successful pain therapy than is the particular drug or the dose or the interval of dosage. If pain is effectively treated soon after its onset, it should be relatively easy to control. But the longer it remains unrelieved, the greater the patient's apprehension and the more difficult it is for drugs to bring the sufferer relief.

Arthur S. Keats, M.D., chairman of anesthesia at Baylor University, states that postoperative pain is related not only to the patient and the type of operative pain, but also to the anesthetic used during surgery. In treating such pain, the physician should consider the curve of pain intensity and adjust the dose and route of the drug accordingly. But all patients usually get a routine drug and dose without regard to the pattern of pain.

Dr. Keats holds the opinion that physicians generally dislike patients who do not obtain relief from powerful analgesics. "The patient who continues to complain . . . is in essence proclaiming that he does not have a very good doctor. Nor are such patients popular with the nursing staff," Dr. Keats comments.

Despite the revolutions taking place in many areas of science, researchers show a curious indifference to the subject of pain control. Morphine, a derivative of opium, is still the drug physicians use most often to control severe pain. Yet every physician who uses it faces a fearful dilemma, the choice between mitigating pain and the possibility of turning his patient into a drug addict.

Scientists have been unable to synthesize a pain-killing drug that is as effective as morphine and yet does not have its addictive property. In fact, certain morphine substitutes are more dangerous than morphine—meperidine, for one, is a common drug of addiction among physicians and nurses.

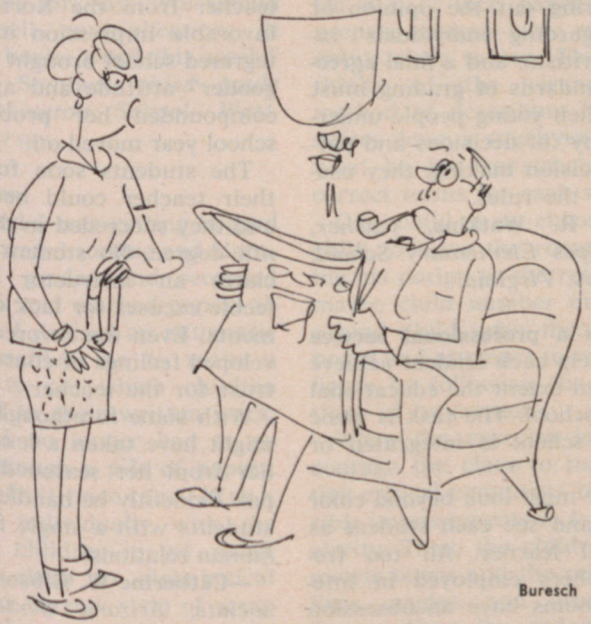
Even if a nonaddicting substitute were found, it would need an additional property to be of value to the chronically ill. To be satisfactory to those suffering from cancer, arthritis, "phantom limb," and other causes, it must also be one to which the patient would not develop a tolerance that would negate the drug's ability to alleviate pain. Researchers point to the need for more powerful and safe analgesics that can be taken by mouth.

Despite the number of people who suffer chronic, intractable pain, physicians now receive almost no training in its treatment and control. One or two medical schools give courses in the management of chronic pain. Interns and residents learn merely to consider it a symptom of disease.

As a way of attracting more qualified scientists into this field, Dr. Bonica advocates the establishment of centers where teams of specialists would diagnose and plan and carry out therapy for intractable pain. These centers would also provide focal areas for research, research training, clinical training. After intensive study, physicians would be kept informed of new developments and would be given refresher training from time to time at these centers.

Dr. Bonica ranks chronic pain as our country's most common disabling disease and estimates that it is responsible for the loss of millions of man-hours a year. While scientists seek the causes and cures of major diseases, no one knows or even suspects the infinite number of men, women, and children suffering from diseases and other handicaps of which persistent, inescapable pain is a part.

Leriche said we are not equal before pain. To discover the elusive mechanisms of that type of pain defined by him as a disease and not a symptom, to find ways of controlling pain that serves no purpose, and to improve the safety and efficacy of analgesics in surgical procedures and childbirth, science must now apply modern techniques and tools with a diligence equal to that applied to research on diseases themselves. □



"I've decided I want to know more about current literature, so I'm going to read a book review every week."

CLASSROOM INCIDENT

This is another in a Journal *series presenting the handling of a troublesome classroom incident by a teacher and analyses by teachers and other consultants whose training and experience may enable them to contribute illuminating insights.*

As a white teacher from the North who had a year's teaching experience, I was pleased with the opportunity to work in a newly integrated school in the South.

I soon discovered that my seasoned black principal was adept at handling irate parents and disenchanted students. This gave me an optimistic outlook about the school year and my ability to do a good job.

Initially, everything went well with my tenth grade history classes. I enjoyed my students and most of them seemed interested. Of course, there are always some students who don't want to study, and my classes were no exception. Several of my students who failed to do any work were black. I excused them with the rationalization that they had to make a big social adjustment this year and that they were probably doing as well as could be expected.

At the end of the first six weeks, I tried to issue the proper grades for each student—without bias. Immediately thereafter I was approached by two black students who had received failing marks. They promised to be "new people" in the coming six weeks if I would change their failing grades.

I hesitated. To be sure, these students had done little work, but possibly I had been too strict. So, after winning their promises to do better and telling myself that I was encouraging good race relations, I changed their grades to passing.

Before long, several more of the black students began requesting special concessions of one sort or another. For the most part, I granted these requests, each time telling myself, "This will be the last time."

It wasn't long before I realized that I was in real trouble. The white students were bitterly resentful, not only of me but also of their black classmates, and a number of parents complained to the principal about favoritism in my classes.

Dismayed, I started flunking all students who did unsatisfactory work and refusing all of their requests for leniency, which rounded out the picture by getting everyone down on me.

This was obviously the wrong solution, but what remedial action should I have taken? How would someone else have handled this situation?

Consultants' Comments

The promotion of "good race relations" cannot be accomplished through making concessions. It can be achieved only through mutual trust and understanding. The teacher, perhaps because of her inexperience, erred in the belief that leniency would promote good relationships. Yet once a teacher makes a careful evaluation of a student's work, the grade should not be changed.

Skillful diplomacy will be needed to change the teacher's untenable position. Definitely, she should inform her principal of what has taken place, at the same time presenting a plan of action to show that she is trying to solve the problem herself.

One such plan might call for a discussion with the students of the grading system used in that particular city and the method she uses in formulating grades. A few well-worded questions would probably spark a lively discussion, bring out the opinion of the class regarding individuals' requesting favoritism, and a final agreement that standards of grading must be upheld. When young people understand the "why" of decisions and participate in decision making, they usually abide by the rules.

—**Dorothy R. Watkins,** *teacher, Horace H. Epes Elementary School, Newport News, Virginia.*

Teaching is a professional service designed to help each student achieve to an optimum extent the educational goals of the school. The task is basic whether the school is integrated or segregated.

The teacher must look beyond color and/or race and see each student as an individual learner. All too frequently, teachers employed in integrated classrooms have an obsession with race and/or color. One of the unfortunate results is the excessive yielding of white teachers to the demands of black students and of black teachers to the demands of white students. This kind of behavior—making the color of a student's skin of more concern than his potentialities as a learner—is intolerable.

The effective teacher is committed to desirable standards. Even though broad participation is needed in planning the educational program, a teacher cannot afford to let students, friends, or the public dictate to him. He will be more highly respected by his peers, pupils, and the public if he teaches in the framework of school policy and philosophy.

A good teacher keeps the lines of communication open between himself and the principal. He informs the principal about classroom problems which may cause serious conflict. If the principal is aware of the problem early, he may nip it in the bud.

It isn't easy to teach students who learn at different rates and in different ways. The teacher must have the patience of Job in order to retain control of the classroom and promote opportunities for maximum learning.

—**Robert Threatt,** *professor of education, Fort Valley (Georgia) State College.*

The overwhelming desire of the new teacher from the North to make a favorable impression in a newly integrated school brought about her "do-gooder" attitude and approach. This compounded her problems as the school year moved on.

The students soon found out that their teacher could be manipulated, and they succeeded in doing so to the nth degree. No student really appreciates an instructor who accepts feeble excuses for lack of accomplishments. Even the favored students developed feelings of contempt and mistrust for the teacher.

With some forethought, the teacher might have taken a lesson much earlier from her seasoned black principal. Evidently he handled parents and students with a single formula—good *human* relations.

—**Catherine W. Gibson,** *research associate, Arizona Center for Early Childhood Education, University of Arizona, Tucson.*

IDEA EXCHANGE

Today's Education *invites NEA members to submit items for possible use in "Idea Exchange." Contributions must not have appeared previously in a periodical having state or national distribution. (Please include your home address as well as your school, position, and ZIP Code.)*

Vocabulary Game

I play a game with my students by giving them such sentences as "I don't know what *apathetic* means, and I couldn't care less" and "No, I don't know what *belligerent* means—you want to make something out of it?" I also let them select their own words to elaborate on. Doing this helps them develop awareness of the many nuances of the English language and have fun in the process.

—Robert Russell, *teacher of reading, Riley Junior High School, Livonia, Michigan.*

Bonus Word

At the end of our spelling test each week, I give the children a bonus word —one they have encountered somewhere during the week, in any subject area *other* than spelling.

The weekly bonus word challenges the children to try to learn new words on their own. For instance, when we first began learning to multiply, I heard one little girl say, "We should learn to spell *multiplication;* it might be the bonus word this week."

—Ruth M. Sommer, *third grade teacher, Washington School, Westwood, New Jersey.*

Automatic Sorter

When I found I was getting bogged down with repeated sorting and alphabetizing as I graded and recorded daily seatwork and marked papers to be sent home, I devised an automatic sorter that enabled me to make a quick check to see which children hadn't handed in their written work. Furthermore I no longer had to go rummaging through a pile of papers.

I took large fruit juice cans (46 oz.), labeled them individually with the names of the children in my room, and fastened them in alphabetical order to a long narrow strip of scrap lumber. After I removed the day's papers from the cans, I could easily and speedily transfer grades to my grade book. The cans also made handy mailboxes that were useful in many ways.

—Kathy Allahverdian, *former second grade teacher, Corvallis, Oregon.*

Are You Color-Blind?

Many publishers now code in color to distinguish various levels or skills in their materials. For most teachers and pupils this is a good idea.

For those of you who are color-blind like me, however (green looks like gray), it is difficult to separate two sets of cards that are shades of green. And you may be confused as to whether or not you should tell a child to get a red book—maybe the book is really orange.

To deal with the problem, I mark all cards of the same series with the same number, and I write the names of colors on the books. To check exercises of more than one color, I cover my glasses with a red filter.

—John E. Boyd, *language arts team of Research for Better Schools, Inc., Philadelphia.*

Geometric Designs

My math class (fifth and sixth graders) develops a working knowledge of geometric terms, figures, and relationships by designing one-dimensional geometric figures that interlock. On 9 x 12 inch paper, the children prepare designs large enough for the entire class to see. Then each child thinks of the cleanest, simplest method of describing his figure and writes down a step-by-step analysis of what he has constructed, using the correct terms for each step.

One child now chooses a second child to leave the room. After showing his design to the rest of his classmates, child number one recalls the second child, who then goes to the board and attempts to reconstruct the figure by following the verbal directions of its creator.

When the exercise is over, I encourage the class to make constructive critical comments indicating possible improvements in term usage and clarity. Thus, the children learn geometric terms and the relationships of lines, angles, and other geometric figures. Near the end of the unit I have found that my classes enjoy doing these exercises in relays, and I have noticed that they retain the knowledge acquired in this way from one year to the next.

—Carol Richter, *team VI coordinator, grades 4-6, Shawnee Elementary School, Indian Hill, Ohio.*

No Minuses Turned into Pluses

In marking student papers and report cards, I follow a practice that takes care of the touchy plus and minus marks that are traditionally placed to the right of the letter grade. I put all minus marks to the left of the letter grade and all plus marks to the right. Not only is this consistent with what we teach children in arithmetic, it also prevents the child's changing minuses to pluses.

—William W. Hatch, *social studies teacher, Issaquah (Washington) Senior High School.*

Student Protest

When I was teaching a class of second graders, the subject of student protest came up. We talked about what might be accomplished through organized protest, and the children decided they wanted to make signs clearly stating what they would like changed or improved within their daily program. I stipulated only that the signs be grammatically worded and the words correctly spelled.

Without exception, the messages made constructive points, and we incorporated several into our program.

—Barbara C. Westburg, *teacher, grades 2, 3, 4, Cluster #3 School, Rochester.*

Daily Riddle

Each day before school begins, I write a riddle on the board. Often the riddles pertain to math; at other times, to totally unrelated areas. Some are difficult and must be solved algebraically; others are easy to answer. To keep interest alive, I regularly post a simple riddle that even the slower students can solve.

In an effort to be first in solving the day's riddle, my students now come to class early instead of loitering in the hall.

—Linda Garcia, *eighth grade mathematics teacher, Dwight Junior High School, San Antonio, Texas.*

LOCAL ASSOCIATION OF THE MONTH: CHERRY HILL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

□ **Located in south central New Jersey,** just across the Delaware River from Philadelphia, Cherry Hill is one of the fastest growing suburban communities in the state. Its school system includes two high schools, two junior highs, one middle school, and 18 elementary schools. The system has 1,080 teachers and professionals serving approximately 16,500 pupils.

In the space of four short years, dues of the Cherry Hill Education Association have risen from $5 to $30 a year. The turning point came in 1968 when the New Jersey State Legislature passed a strong Public Employees' Negotiating Rights Bill, and the membership of CHEA went out on strike to protest arbitrary cuts in a previously negotiated settlement.

In the early stages, much factionalism among elementary and secondary teachers threatened to weaken the association's bargaining effectiveness. However, teachers have progressed to the point where they can better understand each other's problems, and negotiations proposals now seek to obtain a collective agreement reflecting the needs of all the members. Certainly a contributing factor to the creation of unity in the association was the development of an expanded newsletter designed to keep teachers informed about proposal items and the progress of negotiations.

The major benefits won by CHEA over the past four years have included an average pay raise of $1,000 per teacher per year; full family Blue Cross/Blue Shield and major medical protection for all teachers; 150 minutes per week of released preparation time for all elementary teachers and one 45-minute period per day for secondary teachers; sabbatical leaves for seven people per year at 75 percent of their yearly salary.

One of the most significant gains in negotiations has been the establishment of a District Instructional Council consisting of elected, paid representatives from all levels of the education system. Representatives of the teachers, the building principals, and guidance personnel meet weekly and are paid $7.50 per hour to examine and suggest K-12 curriculum improvements. This council, originally funded at $30,000, now has a yearly operating budget of approximately $70,000. Although the Council's role is strictly an advisory one, the board of education has accepted every recommendation made thus far, and there are indications of successes to come.

Negotiations which, at the outset, caused anxiety are now accepted much more routinely by teachers, especially since the association has retained a highly skilled lawyer with wide experience in labor negotiations. The association has also benefitted from the services of the New Jersey Education Association staff as resource personnel in negotiations. At present, the association's primary focus is channeled in other directions, specifically policing of the agreement.

As Hrair Zakarian, this year's president, puts it: "We have learned that teachers have rights only when they are able to enforce those rights." Toward this end, the association has established building liaison committees (similar to union shop stewards) whose job is to insure full implementation of provisions of the contract.

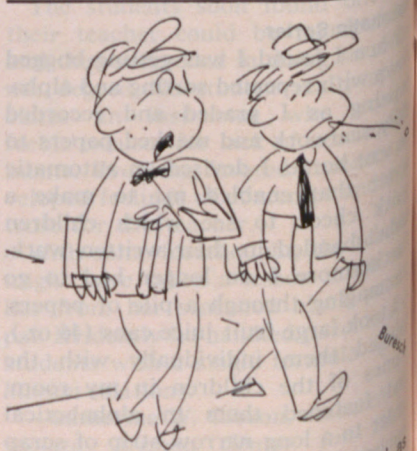
At least one of these people is the regular faculty representative of the association who serves on CHEA's Representative Council—the policy-making arm of the association. The faculty representatives are the backbone of the organization, handling the everyday operations of the association and keeping teachers in their buildings informed on important matters.

During the past year, the association has made its full resources available to its members. Among other items, five or six nontenured teachers who were told by the administration that they were not going to be rehired were, in fact, rehired after the association processed their grievances up to the superintendent's level.

Today CHEA boasts its own district office, manned by a part-time secretary; stipends for all its officers, faculty representatives, and other key personnel; and a membership that is better informed and more committed than ever before. Although the Wage Freeze has greatly confused and hampered this year's negotiations for the 1972-73 contract, teachers are determined to stick together. The membership voted for unification last year by a close vote of 402 to 359, but the fact that we have 782 paid members this year is ample proof of members' willingness to back the leadership. Members expect the concept of unification to manifest itself in extended consultative services and technical assistance to CHEA. At present, the local is trying to implement unification in the district and expects the state and national associations to do the same.

With the experience gained from the past and the promise of unification for the future, CHEA looks forward to even greater growth and service to members in the years to come.

—**Anthony Moore,** *publicity chairman, Cherry Hill (New Jersey) Education Association.*



"I wish I enjoyed walking to school as much as I enjoy walking home from it."

"THE ROLE-CONCEPT AND ROLE-EXPECTATIONS OF ELEMENTARY PRINCIPLES"

by MRS. SALLIE B. HAMMOND—(Copyright 1969)

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This listing is designed to keep you informed of the newest professional materials published by the NEA and its affiliates. Please include stock numbers when you use a purchase order form.

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Completed Research in Health, Physical Education, and Recreation (#2). Volume 13. Covers research completed during 1970. Includes abstracts of master's and doctor's theses from 59 institutions offering graduate programs in health, physical education, recreation, and allied areas. 242 pp. $3. 248-25144. AAHPER.

Curricular Concerns in a Revolutionary Era: Readings from Educational Leadership (#3). Focuses on instruction in today's schools by means of two poems and 66 articles. Moves in natural sequence from the personal through the home, the school, the community, the national, and the international scene. Recommended for preservice and in-service use. 290 pp. $6. 611-17852. Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Curriculum Materials 1972 (#4). Presents a bibliography of instructional materials contributed for display at the 1972 ASCD annual conference by hundreds of public schools and school districts, state education departments, colleges and universities, and other educational organizations throughout the United States. 59 pp. $2. 611-17854. ASCD.

Dressing Room Facilities (#5). Identifies significant considerations in the planning of dressing-locker rooms and related service facilities. 47 pp. $2.50. 240-25282. AAHPER.

Environmental Investigations—Getting Help from Uncle Sam (#6). Reprinted from the November 1971 issue of *The Science Teacher*. Examines government agencies which provide environmental information. Tells their function and what materials are available to the public. 8 pp. 50¢. 471-14620. National Science Teachers Association.

Estimates of School Statistics, 1971-72 (#7). Research Report 1971-R13. Gives, by state, enrollments, numbers, and average salaries of teachers—plus state revenues and expenditures. 38 pp. $1.50. 435-25490. Research Division.

Evaluating Administrative/Supervisory Performance (#8). ERS Circular No. 6, 1971. Summarizes features of 84 local school system programs for evaluating administrative/supervisory personnel and reproduces 11 sample forms and guidelines. Includes annotated bibliography. An ERS subscription includes one copy of each circular. 60 pp. $3. 219-21504. Educational Research Service.

Evaluation Instruments for School Nursing Services (#9). Presents criteria (with evaluation forms) for the use of the administrator and the school nurse supervisor. Also includes a school nurse self-evaluation form. 8 pp. $2. 151-04802. Department of School Nurses.

Future Scientists of America Sponsor's Guidebook (#10). Briefs the FSA sponsor on alternatives in organization, club activities, student programs, and resources for the student. Also explains how to establish new clubs or maintain interest in existing clubs. 56 pp. $3. 471-14590. NSTA.

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Programming for the Education of Women (#12). Winter 1972 issue of the *Journal of the National Association of Women Deans and Counselors*, Volume 35, No. 2. Asks and answers the following questions: What careers do female high school students aspire to? What are the prospects for careers for mature women? How do we need to update student personnel work for the new generation of students? 48 pp. $2. 596-17078. NAWDC.

Selecting Instructional Materials for Purchase: Procedural Guidelines (#13). Addresses 14 recommendations on the selection of textbooks to school board members, administrators, teachers, curriculum specialists, librarians, and media specialists. (See article on page 53 in the February 1972 issue of *Today's Education*.) 64 pp. $2. 381-11992. Joint Committee of the NEA and the Association of American Publishers.

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UNFINISHED STORY

The editors present this story for classroom use as a basis for group discussion, role playing, or creative writing. They also call attention to a booklet, entitled More Unfinished Stories for Use in the Classroom, *No. 381-11976, containing 29 of the most popular unfinished stories, now available for $1 (2-9 copies, 10 percent discount; 10 or more copies, 20 percent discount) from the NEA Publications-Sales Section, 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, DC 20036.*

What Should Celia Do?

Celia's smile slowly turned to a frown as she walked away from the group of girls whispering and giggling together outside the classroom at lunchtime. "I want them to like me," she thought. "I wish they wouldn't be so mean to me."

Celia had enrolled at Central School only two weeks before, and for several days now Mrs. Dawson had been calling on her to answer questions when no one else could answer them. Now, when she tried to make friends, she was teased and called "teacher's pet."

Celia's teacher had told her she might be able to make friends if she helped some of her classmates with their assignments. "How can I help them," she thought, "if they won't even talk to me?"

Finally Celia decided that if the kids disliked her because she was so much smarter than they were, then she would play dumb. "I won't study or answer questions." she said to herself. "I'll try to be more like the other kids."

It didn't take long for Mrs. Dawson to realize that Celia wasn't studying, and the other children in her class noticed that she didn't work problems quickly or answer questions as she had before. But they still wouldn't talk to her.

Meanwhile, Celia's grades were beginning to drop, and she was more and more unhappy because she hadn't made any friends at her new school.

What should Celia do?

Thoughts To Think Aloud:

1. Is Celia right in sacrificing her grades in order to make friends?
2. Do you think being smart was the only reason that Celia was not able to make friends?
3. Do you think students usually dislike classmates who are good at their studies? Explain.

—**Charles Harris,** *senior, Hampton (Virginia) Institute.*

RESEARCH CLUES

This regular monthly feature of brief research summaries is designed to encourage the teacher to become familiar with significant research in education and to conduct action research of his own.

Although knowledge of research findings in education can be helpful to the teacher in developing his own instructional program, he needs to remember that research studies on a particular topic do not always agree and that no single study or series of studies should be considered to reveal the final answer.

Further details about the research summarized here can be obtained from the organizations mentioned in the summaries.

Do students generally like computer assisted instruction?

The Stanford University Center for Research and Development in Teaching found that junior high students, some of whom were using computer assisted instruction (CAI) for remedial instruction in mathematics, liked the computer instruction and were highly motivated by it. The researchers reasoned that some students may feel more comfortable with the machine than with teachers because the teachers may evaluate the students on behavior unrelated to achievement.

The researchers also found that students saw the computer as having more expertise than teachers and that they think it is generally more fair. The implication is drawn that the computer may have particular potential for students from low-income areas.

A study of INDICOM (Individual Communications System), which has been operating in Waterford School District, Pontiac, Michigan, for some

years, also found that students like their computer instruction at both elementary and secondary levels. One exception was a class of particularly bright fifth graders. The researchers suggested that perhaps the bright students did not like to take the extra time required to work with the computer.

Encouraging achievement gains are reported in some areas of the INDICOM project, but teachers say that although CAI frees them to work with individual students and small groups, it does not mean less work for teachers.

What does the latest research say about the effectiveness of the "Sesame Street" TV series?

Educational Testing Service of Princeton, New Jersey, reports that *Sesame Street*, in a second and more ambitious 29-week season, continued to demonstrate the effectiveness of television as a medium for teaching preschool children.

The latest ETS study tends to support first-year findings that the program was effective in imparting basic facts and skills to children aged three to five and that those who watched most learned most.

At the same time, reanalysis of first-year study data indicates that the program was as effective with black disadvantaged children as with the white disadvantaged, that the disadvantaged among frequent viewers gained as much as did the advantaged, and that the three-year-olds who were among the most frequent viewers gained more and ended with higher total scores than older children who viewed less frequently.

The study also reports that: (a) The program improved children's attitudes toward school and toward people of other races. (b) Teacher evaluations suggested that the more frequent viewers of first-year *Sesame Street* programs were better prepared for school than the infrequent viewers among their classmates.

However, the study reveals that the program was less successful in achieving the new and more ambitious goals incorporated in the second-year programs—such as adding, subtracting, decoding, and left-right orientation.

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1961	44,500	35,600	29,700	23,700	17,800
1965	40,400	32,300	26,900	21,600	16,200
1969	33,100	26,500	22,000	17,700	13,300

If you have not increased the insurance coverage of your home in the last three years, you would be wise to check into the advisability of increasing it.

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For renters, household and personal property and liability coverage are available in a renter's policy. This policy provides:

- Protection for tenants, apartment dwellers, and home renters.
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BOOKSHELF

(*Continued from page* 17)

rather than restrict the skills of the young learner. From examining stages in the growth of intellect, he analyzes the interplay between man's evolution and culture and the effects of cultural transmissions on learning. 175 pp. Norton. $5.95.

The Timely and the Timeless: Interrelationships of Science, Education, and Society. Bentley Glass. One of a series, this book is an elaboration of the John Dewey Lecture, delivered at the annual meeting of the National Society of College Teachers of Education. Bentley Glass, a distinguished professor of biology and academic vice-president of the State University of New York at Stony Brook, works at the frontier of contemporary science and has given much thought to the critical gap between public understanding and scientific knowledge. He criticizes society as being too complacent as it witnesses an exponential increase in total knowledge and an extraordinarily rapid obsolescence in teacher education. Dr. Glass states that the old question must be resolved as to whether to give greater emphasis to subject matter or to method of inquiry. He recommends combining content and process into a continually self-reviewing unity and making programs of continuing education mandatory for all professional people. 99 pp. Basic Books. $4.95.

Educational History, Educational Biography, and Educational Philosophy

American Education: The Colonial Experience, 1607-1783. Lawrence A. Cremin. This is the first of a three-volume history of American education. Cremin introduces the study by describing the intellectual heritage from which early American society drew its ideas and attitudes and then analyzes the interaction of education with society, politics, religion, and culture in England and America. He discusses the effect of denominationalism, utilitarianism, and republicanism on educational thought and practice. In addition, he explores the role of education in the movement for independence. The comprehensive bibliographic essay which summarizes and concludes this major work is invaluable. 688 pp. Harper. $12.50.

Educationally and Culturally Disadvantaged

To Make a Difference: Teaching in the Inner City. Larry Cuban. The author, director of the Office of Staff Development in the public schools of Washington, DC, where he also teaches, presents a candid view of the problems teachers face in inner-city schools. He discusses different learning styles of children; workable approaches; and specific problems, such as race, discipline, and expectations. Cuban's philosophy is that the individual teacher must match his method of instruction and the material he uses to the needs of the student. He also stresses the responsibility of the teacher to act as a liaison with the community, to make decisions about instruction, and to develop and evaluate curriculum. He places responsibility on schools and teachers to see to it that children have the opportunity to learn. 261 pp. The Free Press. $6.95 in paperback.

Letter to a Teacher. The Schoolboys of Barbiana. Translated by Nora Rossi and Tom Cole, with postscripts by Robert Coles and John Holt. Eight young Italian peasant boys wrote this biting and eloquent book describing their world and their experiences in a unique school with a unique teacher. The authors, ranging in age from 13 to 16, attended school in Barbiana, a community of farmhouses which dot the hillsides around Florence. A parish priest started the school to provide supplementary education for working-class and peasant boys who had failed in the state school system. The boys learned together and taught one another as they gathered informally out-of-doors or in someone's kitchen. Eight worked on a project for a year to determine why lower-class children, such as themselves, did so well in this school yet had not succeeded in the state schools. They addressed their *Letter to a Teacher* to administrators and teachers in the state school system. 167 pp. Random House. $5.95.

Educational Psychology

Piaget for Teachers. Hans G. Furth. The main purpose of this book is to familiarize educators with Piaget's work and to present key aspects of Piaget's philosophy, theory, and findings that have immediate relevance and critical implications for educational process. Furth, a recognized scholar in psychology who worked with Piaget for a year, uses the charming letters to teachers to interpret what Piaget's discoveries can mean to schools. In the first part of the book, the author explicates Piaget's theory step by step; in the last part, he shifts to practical suggestions of things to do. Furth proposes that Piaget's view of the developing intelligence is a viable alternative to other views of learning currently in favor. 163 pp. Prentice-Hall. $6.95; $2.95 in paperback.

Special Education and Exceptional Children

Psycholinguistic Learning Disabilities: Diagnosis and Remediation. Samuel A. and Winifred D. Kirk. The purpose of this book is to assist those using the Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities (ITPA) to interpret test results and to organize remedial programs. The first section covers the broad areas of learning disabilities and explains the development and meaning of ITPA. Selected research studies are reviewed. Another section

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deals primarily with the diagnostic process and how scores on the ITPA are analyzed and interpreted. Further chapters include suggestions to assist the diagnostician and remedial teacher in understanding the levels, processes, and channels employed in constructing the test and in giving ideas for remediation. The final section presents general guidelines on how a remedial teacher can devise a remedial procedure and select appropriate materials. 198 pp. University of Illinois Press. $7.95; $2.45 in **paperback.**

Administration and Supervision (including School Law)

The Law of Public Education. E. Edmund Reutter and Robert R. Hamilton. This book is designed to provide basic knowledge of the law as it directly affects U.S. public education. The major portion covers the principles of law as applied to problems in education, with generalizations and examples derived from an analysis of thousands of cases. The authors cite more than 700 judicial decisions to illustrate their points and present 94 principal cases to allow the reader to examine the reasoning of the courts in deciding important issues. (They have edited these cases to eliminate material not germane to education law.) The authors objectively analyze and synthesize judicial interpretation of constitutions, statutes, rules and regulations, and the common law. They cover such topics as church-state-education relationships, school boards, financing education, tort liability, contract liability, certification and employment of teachers, pupil personnel, desegregation, and school elections. 654 pp. Foundation Press. $11.50.

Teacher Education, Student Teaching, and In-Service Training

Research in Teacher Education: A Symposium. Edited by B. Othanel Smith. This book is the result of a symposium held at an American Educational Research Association meeting to consider contemporary issues and research on effectiveness of modern principles of teacher training. It includes recommendations for designing correlational studies, analyzing the results, and selecting variables. One section deals with individualized teaching and how teachers can be trained to use the appropriate concepts and skills. This same view of teaching is explored theoretically, and the thesis is presented that the conventional distinctions between heuristics and didactics appear questionable on theoretical grounds. The book concludes with a presentation of concepts to analyze designs for teacher-education programs, using a number of designs that include the Model Elementary Teacher Education projects sponsored by the U.S. Office of Education. The book also suggests areas for developmental research. 166 pp. Prentice Hall. $5.95.

Improving In-Service Education: Proposals and Procedures for Change. Edited by Louis J. Rubin. This authoritative book about the continuing education of teachers offers supervisors of student teachers an overview of the problems of teacher professional growth, provides principals with an understanding of organizational conditions prerequisite to staff professional development, and gives curriculum specialists insight into the relationships between the program of instruction and the teacher who translates their ideas into reality. It contains 11 essays written by distinguished scholars in American education. Each chapter treats a different facet of teacher professional growth. The editor provides unity by including a commentary after each chapter in which he translates and extends theoretical ideas into recommendations for practical application. 284 pp. Allyn. $9.50.

Measurement, Statistical Methods, Evaluation, Research, and Research Methodology

Handbook on Formative and Summative Evaluation of Student Learning. Benjamin S. Bloom and others. The first sections deal with purposes of evaluation, models and techniques for constructing valid evaluation instruments, and ways in which cooperation between teachers and specialists can reduce the work and improve the effectiveness of evaluation. Major sections are organized around the *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives* (Bloom and others, 1956; Krathwohl and others, 1964) and discuss evaluation instruments as related to different types of objectives. The second part consists of chapters dealing with evaluation in each of the major subject fields at all levels of education. The chapters, each written by an authority in that subject field, are comprehensive and include a wealth of examples and illustrations. The authors discuss diagnostic and formative evaluation in ways likely to present new approaches to improving teaching and learning and new means for improving summative evaluation. 923 pp. McGraw. $11.95.

The Design of Educational Experiments. C. Mitchell Dayton. The author presents in detail experimental designs which have proved widely usable in education, along with examples of their analysis and interpretation. He uses the concept of sets of orthogonal contrasts on the cells of a basic one-dimensional design as the unifying principle for most of the designs. The major sections include consideration of general design principles, completely randomized design, factorial designs, incomplete factorial designs, randomized block design, nested designs, repeated measures designs, the analysis of covariance, and the basic principles of matrix algebra. 441 pp. McGraw. $10.

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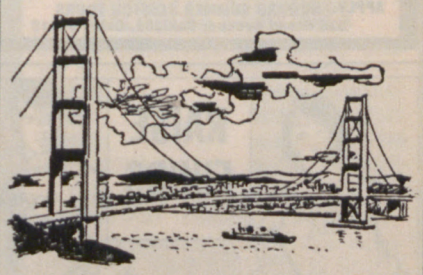

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Educational Measurement. Second edition. Edited by Robert L. Thorndike. Since 1951 the first edition of this book has been recognized as a leading reference work for graduate study in the theory and techniques of educational measurement. The new edition is the result of several years of continuous effort on the part of 23 authorities and 90 collaborators, directed by Robert L. Thorndike, the distinguished scholar who served as editor. The content covers such major topics as measurement theory, test design and construction, test administration, the processing of test results, special types of tests, and the application of tests to educational problems. Special attention is given to technological developments and their reverberations and implications, conceptual developments, and social and political issues impinging upon the testing enterprise. Automation of test scoring and evaluation of educational programs are subjects covered in this edition which were not included in the first one. 768 pp. American Council on Education. $15.

Curriculum and Teaching Methodology

The Curriculum: Retrospect and Prospect. The Seventieth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part 1. Edited by Robert M. McClure. A group of outstanding scholars worked with McClure at the arduous task of bringing together materials for this scholarly and timely yearbook. The book has three parts, dealing with past, present, and future. In the first section, the authors review selected achievements, using the influential Twenty-Sixth Yearbook as their principal reference. In the second section, the authors reflect on accomplishments and omissions of the past and assess present phenomena. Section three reflects the essential optimism of the authors and sets forth many options for the future. This yearbook should add impetus to the rethinking of the broader aims and purposes of education, reconsideration of new methods, and creative suggestions for achieving reform in our schools. 364 pp. National Society for the Study of Education (distributed by the University of Chicago Press). $5.50.

The Open Access Curriculum. L. Craig Wilson. This book presents a comprehensive plan to implement current successful advancements in curriculum design, such as involvement of teachers in curriculum planning, team teaching, and flexible scheduling of the school day. The author theorizes that since learners are striving individually for greater access to knowledge, the curriculum should be so reconstructed as to throw uncompromising support behind the sometimes frightening, sometimes promising "revolution of access." The first half of the book, in discussing emerging curriculum theory, covers the concept of open access, philosophical perspectives, avenues to access, factors in curriculum change, and controversial questions related to curriculum theory. The latter half historically and analytically treats the large academic disciplines which are the building blocks of the curriculum. Both on-the-job generalists and specialists will find this book useful for design implementation, program improvement, and evaluation. 304 pp. Allyn. $8.95.

Preschool, Kindergarten, and Elementary School Education

Logical Thinking in Second Grade. Millie Almy. This study seeks to answer the question, "Do children who receive systematic instruction in the basic concepts of mathematics and science which they are in kindergarten think more logically when they reach second grade than do children who did not have such early instruction?" The longitudinal study is based on the theoretical formulations of Piaget, who has for years maintained that a major shift in the nature of children's thinking occurs somewhere around the age of seven. The information regarding the children's ability to think logically was derived from their performance of tasks that involved conservation, serial ordering, transivity, and classification. The 914 children used in the study were divided into groups which received instruction according to a prescribed curriculum, such as the Greater Cleveland Mathematics Program, and groups whose instruction was planned by the individual classroom teacher. The book presents a comprehensive and meticulous coverage of the problem, related research, the method and procedure, the analysis of the programs, aspects of the teaching, results from the effects of instruction, and results from the viewpoint of the Piagetian theory. The summary of the study and its implications will interest researchers who study cognitive development and educators who develop curriculums. 216 pp. Teachers College Press. $2.95 in paperback.

Elementary School Social Studies: A Guide to Current Research. Maxine Dunfee. The major sections of this book discuss goals, values, behaviors and process, curriculum trends, concepts of time and space, learning as inquiry, education and media, techniques in evaluation, and teacher education in social studies. During the past decade, social studies educators and social scientists have made great progress in research in social studies in the elementary schools. Research is currently focusing on goals and curriculum concerns, the search for more knowledge about children, learning as inquiry, testing new materials and methods, construction of evaluation devices and innovation in teacher education. The book does not attempt to evaluate methods or particular findings but reports summaries of available research. 128 pp. Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. $2.75 in paperback.

Creative Learning and Teaching. Paul Torrance and R. E. Myers. The purpose of this book is to help teachers improve by making them aware of (a) their own creative potentialities, (b) the kinship of the teaching-learning and creative processes, (c) the wealth of creative talent in every classroom, and (d) practical ways of going about the business of enhancing the creative functioning of their students. The book deals with fundamental factors related to creativity, such as motivation, awareness, reading and communication, inductive questioning and responsive environment. 343 pp. Dodd. $5.95.

Early Childhood Education: Perspectives on Change. Evelyn Weber. A travel grant from the Carnegie Corporation

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enabled the author to make firsthand observations and surveys of numerous innovative teaching programs for young children throughout the United States. The author states that although the proliferation of innovative programs is encouraging because it shows that early childhood education is receiving the extensive thought and attention it requires, this proliferation makes it difficult to assess new directions and to put developments in perspective. The book includes discussions of parent-child programs; academically oriented, preschool reading programs; and inquiry and discovery approaches. The author competently interweaves history, philosophy, and theories of early childhood education. 202 pp. Charles A. Jones Publishing Co. $7.50.

Reading

The Reading Process: The Teacher and the Learner. Miles V. Zintz. The primary purpose of this book is to help the classroom teacher be a diagnostic teacher of reading every day. The author maintains that good diagnostic teaching of reading involves an eclectic approach to methodology which requires that the teacher ascertain and build on the functional level of skills and abilities of each child. He also places emphasis on the affective values in learning, holding that developing permanent interests in reading and reacting critically and constructively to material read is as much affect as cognition. The book covers such topics as psychological foundations for reading instruction, organizing the classroom, group interaction, skills of reading, and linguistics and reading. 549 pp. William C. Brown Co. $8.85.

Health, Physical Education, and Recreation

Man and His Movement: Principles of His Physical Education. Harold M. Barrow. This book aims at developing a philosophy of physical education that will enable the student to conduct himself as a knowledgeable and concerned professional. The first section explores the relationship between education and physical education and discusses goals, aims, and objectives as they formulate a philosophy. The second includes a study of leadership, professional training, and professional opportunities. The third encompasses the principles of physical education, categorized around the biological aspects of man, the sociological and anthropological aspects of man and his value systems, and the psychological aspects with emphasis on motor learning and performance. The fourth unit deals with the curriculum and its evaluation. Much of the content of the book documents and supports new directions in physical education, as it emphasizes the cognitive, psychomotor, and affective aspects of human movement. 355 pp. Lea and Febiger. $9.50. □

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AFTER ALL

Journal editors invited Joy Elmer Morgan to use this month's "After All" page to discuss the sense of history, after hearing him discuss the topic with national officers of Future Teachers of America. Dr. Morgan was founder and first editor of the Journal.

Will the United States survive the next 50 years as a democratic civilization? Does the question shock you? I was shocked and unbelieving in the early 1920's when a member of the British Parliament, whom I met at the Cosmos Club in Washington, DC, remarked that the British Empire was doomed as a great world power. He had a sense of history and foresaw what has since taken place.

There have always been positive and negative forces at work in human society. Sometimes the negative forces become the stronger, and individuals and nations perish. At some point, society is always breaking down; at others, it is building up. The forces of decay are subtle and usually come from within. Only leaders with a sense of history see the dangers in time to take remedial action.

The history of the Christian church offers a prime example. Early Christian teaching based on love, service, and sacrifice laid the foundation for a wave of progress and produced the greatest book of all time. But after church and state were combined under Constantine, power, not love, began to dominate. The Dark Ages eventually followed, continuing until the ancient Greek heritage of freedom and learning took root in the early universities, where the study of Socrates, Plato, and other philosophers inspired a new wave of intellectual adventure which led to the Renaissance.

During most of this transitional period from medieval to modern times, the Bible, available only in the language of the clergy, was denied the common people. Tyndale was burned at the stake for daring to translate the New Testament into English. Because the church leaders lacked a sense of history, the horrors of the Spanish Inquisition occurred.

During the past centuries, changes have taken place at a slow pace. Under the influence of modern technology, however, the rate of change has speeded up to such a degree that the negative forces may get out of hand before they can be detected and corrected. To illustrate the point, one need only mention overpopulation; pollution of air, earth, and water; dominant militarism; unregulated greed; and the increasing concentration of economic power in the hands of a few.

Throughout history, cities have been the focal points at which civilization has broken down. Yet our national agricultural policy has had the effect of encouraging, even forcing, migration from rural areas into the cities. New York City alone maintains 1.2 million persons on welfare.

Civilization has roots and, like a tree, it must have balance between roots and body if the whole is to remain healthy. The roots of civilization are in its history, and wisdom comes from study and meditation on that history.

Take a look at your habits. Compare them with the habits of the men who founded the nation or the habits of the men and women who dominated the mental life of the nation during the flowering of New England, which, under the guidance of Horace Mann, gave impetus to our system of free public schools. Compare the amount of time you spend listening to the radio and watching TV and reading the headlines of the daily papers with the amount of time you spend studying and meditating upon the fundamentals of man's experience on this earth.

The free public school, properly conceived and managed, is our best hope for the future. The teacher—dedicated and broadly educated—is our most effective instrument. Our teachers need to recapture the sense of history and destiny that shines through the writings of Horace Mann, the father of our system of free schools. Have we become so absorbed with management, so obsessed with tests and national norms that we have forgotten that children are infinitely varied in their potentialities and in their rates of growth and development? Have we forgotten that the most important thing in all education is character and that this comes through personal contact between teacher and pupil?

Looking back over centuries of gru- some human experience, our founding fathers built into the Constitution the separation of church and state. Pressure is now increasing to break down that separation through state and federal aid to parochial schools. Again have we lost our sense of history?

Throughout the evolution of life on earth, hardship has produced strength and ease has led to weakness. Man is at his best when facing difficulties which challenge his ingenuity.

Can industrial civilization—which ever seeks to make life easier; which leaves many (including senior citizens forced into premature retirement) unemployed without constructive use of their time and talent; which drafts youth away from their normal setting during their formative years for a period of military service—can such a civilization maintain its vitality, its appreciation of basic values, and its internal cohesiveness? The race is between spiritual awakening and material decline if we may believe the lessons of history. □

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